DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 245 033 UD 023 622

AUTHOR Cuervo, Amalia G. Ed.; And Others
TITLE Toward Better and Safer Schools. A School Leader's Guide to Delinquency Prevention.
INSTITUTION National School Boards Association, Washington, D.C.
SPONS AGENCY Department of Justice, Washington, D.C.
REPORT NO ISBN-0-88364-100-3
PUB DATE 84
GRANT 82-MU-AX-K045
NOTE 231p.
AVAILABLE FROM National Schools Boards Association, 1680 Duke Street, Alexandria, VA 22314 ($14.95 + $2.75 postage).
PUB TYPE Guides - General (050)

EDRS PRICE MF01 Plus Postage. PC Not Available from EDRS.
DESCRIPTORS Board of Education Policy; *Change Strategies; Curriculum Development; *Delinquency Prevention; Elementary Secondary Education; Resources; School Administration; *School Effectiveness; *School Role; *School Safety; *Student Participation

ABSTRACT

This handbook, structured to facilitate use by policy makers, practitioners, school board members and school staff, contains three parts. Part I presents practical information and an action plan for implementing school improvement and delinquency prevention measures. Chapters 1 and 2 focus on how delinquency affects the U.S. educational system, and on establishing a rationale for school-based delinquency prevention policies and practices. Chapters 3 through 5 present a six-step process to support local boards in selecting non-punitive approaches to discipline and to delinquency prevention, particularly early prevention programs. The process provides for choosing a focus for change, assessing a school's weaknesses and strengths, setting goals and objectives, developing an action plan, implementing chosen strategies, and gauging progress toward improvement. Part II is a compendium of more than 45 in-school improvement and delinquency prevention program models that are currently being implemented in public schools throughout the U.S. This part functions partly as a how-to manual for practitioners, and partly as a resource guide to a network of innovators and experts. Part III, a more extensive resource and reference guide, may be used to assist in planning and evaluating delinquency prevention programs; it includes and annotated list of recommended books, articles, readings, theme-related periodicals and congressional hearings, selected media aids, technical assistance sources, databases and clearinghouses, and development resources. An appendix contains examples of behavioral contracts between students, parents, and schools. (Author/KH)

**********
* Reproductions supplied by EDRS are the best that can be made *
* from the original document. *
**********

ED245033

# A School Leader's Guide to Delinquency Prevention

"PERMISSION TO REPRODUCE THIS MATERIAL IN MICROFICHE ONLY HAS BEEN GRANTED BY

I. Floyd
NSBA

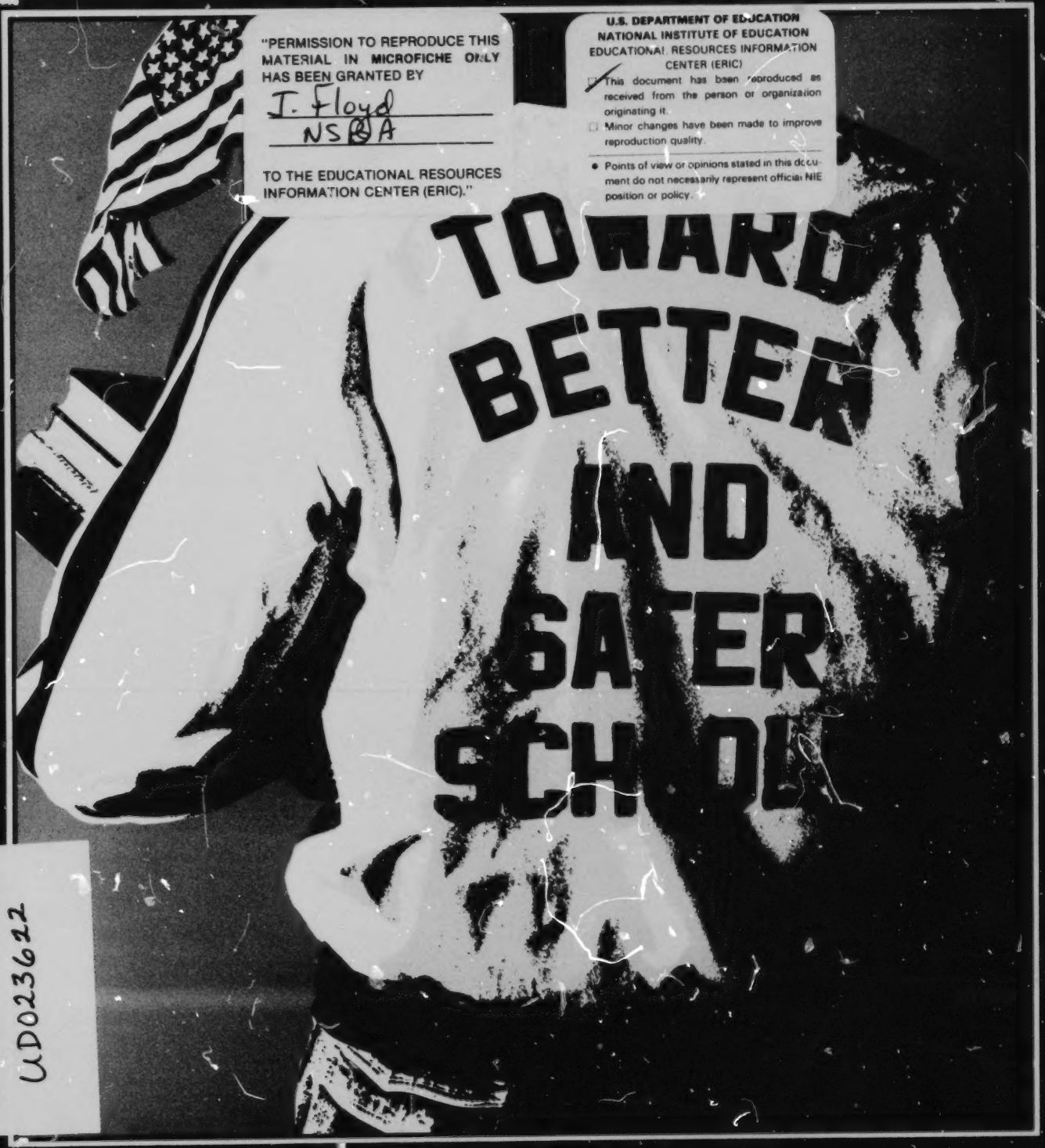
TO THE EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)."

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF EDUCATION
EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)

☑ This document has been reproduced as received from the person or organization originating it.

☐ Minor changes have been made to improve reproduction quality.

• Points of view or opinions stated in this document do not necessarily represent official NIE position or policy.




UD023622

# ADVISORY COMMITTEE

## Project on School-Based Strategies For Delinquency Prevention

### CHAIRMAN

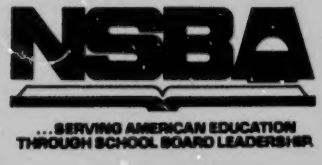
Dr. Thomas A. Shannon
Executive Director
National School Boards Association
Washington, DC

| MEMBERS | REPRESENTING |
|---|---|
| Mr. Milton Bins, Senior Associate<br>Council of The Great City Schools<br>Washington, DC | Council of The Great City Schools |
| Ms Toni R. Cook, Associate Dean<br>Howard University, Washington, DC | National School Volunteer Program |
| Mr. Clifford Freeman<br>Oregon Board of Education, Portland, OR | National Association of State Boards of Education |
| Dr. William B. Keene<br>Deleware Department of Public Instruction<br>Dover, DE | Council of Chief State School Officers |
| Mr. Paul R. Leary<br>Norwood, OH | Association of School Business Officials |
| Mr. Charles S. Marks, Principal<br>Michael Dowling School, Minneapolis, MN | National Association of Elementary School Principals |
| Mr. Charles P. O'Toole<br>Seattle, WA | Former Advisory Committee Member of the National School Resource Network |
| Mr. John C. Prasch, Instructor<br>University of Nebraska, Lincoln, NE | American Association of School Administrators |
| Mrs. Maureen Steinecke, Executive Director<br>Maryland Association of Boards of Education<br>Annapolis, MD | NSBA's Executive Directors Liaison Committee |
| Dr. Arlen Tieken<br>Assistant Superintendent for Community Education, New Braunsfels, TX | National Community Education Association |
| Mr. Allen Walker, Principal<br>Litchfield High School, Litchfield, CT | National Association of Secondary School Principals |
| Mr. William M. Washington, Principal<br>Cleveland Middle School, Detroit, MI | Association of Supervision and Curriculum Development |
| **EX-OFFICIO MEMBERS** | |
| Mr. Jesse Jordan, Executive Director<br>Federal Interagency Committee on Education<br>Washington, DC | U.S. Department of Education |
| Mr. William Modzeleski, Staff Director<br>Concentration of Federal Effort<br>Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention, Washington, DC | U.S. Department of Justice |
| Dr. Robert A. Radford, Acting Director<br>Youth Development Division, Washington, DC | U.S. Department of Health and Human Services |
| Mr. Bob Walling, Program Analyst<br>Office of Planning Management<br>Special Education and Rehabilitation Services<br>Washington, DC | U.S. Department of Education |

# TOWARD BETTER AND SAFER SCHOOLS

# TOWARD BETTER AND SAFER SCHOOLS

## A School Leader's Guide to Delinquency Prevention



# TOWARD BETTER AND SAFER SCHOOLS

National School Boards Association

Ted J. Comstock, President

Thomas A. Shannon, Executive Director

Jeremiah Floyd, Associate Executive Director

Martharose Laffey, Assistant Executive Director

Amalia G. Cuervo, Director of Research and Information Services


| | |
|---|---|
| Project Director and Executive Editor: | **Amalia G. Cuervo** |
| Associate Editor: | **Anne Meadows** |
| Authors: | **Amalia G. Cuervo**<br>**Joan Lees**<br>**Richard Lacey** |
| Contributors: | **Lorraine Kennedy**<br>**Jim Malone**<br>**Alan Shark**<br>**Jim Van Loozen** |
| Illustrations: | **Ford Button** |
| Book Design and Printing: | **Rob Shultz**<br>Design Partners, Inc.<br>Washington Grove, Maryland |
| Typesetting: | **Hendricks-Miller Typographic Co.**<br>Washington, D.C. |
| Published by: | **National School Boards Association**<br>1680 Duke Street<br>Alexandria, Virginia 22314 |



Copyright © 1984 by National School Boards Association. All rights reserved.



Library of Congress Catalog Number: 84-60965

Printed in the United States of America

ISBN: 0-88364-100-3

This project was supported by a U.S. Department of Justice Grant Number 82-MU-AX-K045 awarded to the National School Boards Association. Points of view or opinions stated in this document do not necessarily represent the official position or policies of the U.S. Department of Justice.

May, 1984

THE WHITE HOUSE

WASHINGTON

On December 8, 1983 at the National Forum on Excellence in Education, I set forth my view of the reforms needed to promote excellence in our nation's educational system. I emphasized that American schools don't need vast new sums of money as much as they need a few fundamental reforms. First, we need to restore good, old fashioned discipline. In too many schools across the land, teachers can't teach because they lack the authority to make students take tests, hand in homework, or even stay quiet in class. In some schools, teachers suffer verbal and physical abuse. I can't say it too forcefully: This must stop.

My Administration has unveiled a six-part program to improve the educational system. The first two priorities in our program are to restore discipline and to end drug and alcohol abuse in the schools.

This book contains a number of programs that make sense, cost little or nothing to put in place, and will help carry out our priorities. I recommend it to school leaders as a vital aid in their efforts to create better and safer schools.

Ronald Reagan

# Contents


Table of Contents ..... i

Introduction ..... iii

Part 1—Understanding School-Based Prevention ..... 1

- Chapter 1: Effective Schools and Delinquency Prevention ..... 3
- Chapter 2: School-Based Prevention ..... 23
- Chapter 3: Planning for Improvement: Everybody's Business ..... 43
- Chapter 4: Fulfilling Plans: Implementation ..... 61
- Chapter 5: Gauging Progress ..... 83
- Conclusion ..... 93

Part II—Promising Strategies ..... 97

- Introduction to Strategies ..... 99
- School Organization ..... 103
- Instructional Techniques ..... 117
- Curricula ..... 135
- Student Involvement ..... 147
- School-Family Relationships ..... 157
- School-Community Relationships ..... 165

Part III—Resource and Reference Guide ..... 181

- Introduction ..... 183
- Annotated Books and Recommended Readings ..... 185
- Annotated Articles and Recommended Readings ..... 201
- Theme-Related Periodicals ..... 205
- Theme-Related Congressional Hearings ..... 207
- Selected Media Aids ..... 209
- Technical Assistance Sources ..... 215
- Data Bases and Clearinghouses ..... 221
- Development Resources ..... 227

Appendix ..... 229

# Introduction

The fortunes of American schools and American society are inseparable. When schools succeed, society succeeds; when schools fail, society fails. Just as school is a microcosmic reflection of the larger society, the problems confronting public schools are the same problems confronting the whole of society.

Violence, delinquency, vandalism, disruption, failure, and fear in the schools mirror society and cause significant local, state, and national concern. The delinquent on the street corner frequently began by making trouble in the schoolyards.

## Schools Can Make a Difference

William Glasser, author of *Schools Without Failure,* recognized that schools can play a key role in solving society's problems. To do so, however, schools must be organized to respond to the needs of all students: "Unless we can provide schools where children, through a reasonable use of their capabilities, can succeed, we will do little to solve the major problems of our country."

The American public also believes that schools can act as its agent in combatting delinquency. Since 1969, every Gallup Poll except one has cited lack of discipline in the schools as the chief public concern for education. The public has consistently looked to the schools to act as a primary intervener against crime, violence, and delinquency.

Research has documented the tremendous influence of schools upon young people's development.

The quality and scope of a student's interactions in the school environment are inextricably linked with the student's social competence—how he or she relates to fellow students and family members and eventually to employers. School-related factors are strong predictors of delinquent behavior.

Because of its unique influence on every citizen in the nation, the school is the only formal social institution capable of addressing the full range of behaviors and conditions likely to result in juvenile delinquency.

## A Timely Issue

Nearly a dozen major reports recently have called for renewed commitment to quality education in America. Although these studies vary greatly in scope, perspective, and recommendations, virtually all of them document the primacy of improving the environment in our schools as fundamental to improving learning opportunities.

## How This Handbook Can Help

This handbook introduces the theme of delinquency prevention through strategies aimed at overall school improvement, including enhanced climate, curriculum, and instruction. It recognizes that improving the environment in our schools is as crucial as improving curricula, textbooks, and teaching standards. It recognizes existing tools for responding to disruptive students, but it stresses sound disciplinary policies and practices that improve school climate by involving disruptive students in constructive activities, rather than by further alienating them.

## Who Will Use This Handbook

This is a handbook for putting ideas in practice. Produced for both policy makers and practitioners, the handbook is equally useful to board members and school staff. The handbook is a collaborative effort between NSBA and the Educational Leaders Consortium (ELC), which represents the major constituencies in education today. Thanks to the valuable contribution of the various members of the Advisory Committee, representing the ELC, the guide speaks to superintendents, principals, teachers, parents, and community members. For the policy maker, the handbook addresses the links between effective schooling and delinquency prevention. For the practioner, the handbook includes more than 45 proven strategies and a comprehensive resource and reference guide. As you explore its contents (it is not designed to be read straight through) you are sure to find ideas worth trying in your school district.

## How is the Handbook Organized?

The handbook contains three parts, structured to facilitate use by the diverse audience it addresses:

*Part I* presents practical information and an action plan for implementing school improvement and delinquency prevention measures. Chapters 1 and 2 focus on how delinquency affects our educational system, and on establishing a rationale for school-based delinquency prevention policies and practices. These chapters will be especially useful to board members and other policy makers in setting the context for sound educational practice. The handbook sets forth an orderly process by which school leaders who desire to improve school quality and safety can bring about meaningful changes in the school environment.

Chapters 3 through 5 present a six-step process to support local boards in selecting non-punitive approaches to discipline and to delinquency prevention, particularly early prevention programs.

The process provides for:

- Choosing a focus for change;
- Assessing a school's weaknesses and strengths;
- Setting goals and objectives;
- Developing an action plan;
- Implementing chosen strategies; and
- Gauging progress toward improvement.

*Part II* provides a compendium of more than 45 successful, in-school improvement and delinquency prevention program models that are currently being implemented in public schools throughout the country. Practioners will find here a how-to manual that captures the nuts-and-bolts of promising strategies. Part II also provides an introduction to a vast network of innovators, experts, and resources that may be only a phone call away. These strategies demonstrate that significant progress is possible and probable when programs are planned and implemented carefully, and given enough time to succeed.

*Part III* is an extended resource and reference guide to assist school board members, superintendents, principals, and teachers in planning and evaluating prevention programs.

## What This Handbook Is . . . And Is Not

This handbook addresses primary prevention, which consists of activities directed toward changing the attitudes and behavior of young people to keep them from entering the juvenile justice system. The handbook can help school leaders design and carry out school-based activities that keep young people from getting into trouble with the law.

Primary prevention is proactive, not reactive. It implies eliminating the causes of trouble, not simply attempting to reform troublemakers. Primary prevention, which seeks to preclude the initial occurrence of troublesome behavior, serves all students, including learning-disabled and remedial students and other students with special needs. By broadening the array of opportunities for success available to all students, primary prevention strengthens the efforts of schools to develop law abiding, self-sufficient citizens.

The handbook is not oriented toward incarceration or diversion programs, suspension, expulsion, or alternative education programs, all of which are intended to deal with students already in trouble. It recognizes them as available options for dealing with troublesome students.

## Why This Handbook is Needed

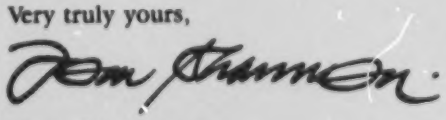
Primary prevention strategies for addressing academic problems have been part of American education for a number of years. However, school programs designed to change the school situation rather than the individual student are a relatively new development. These programs have arisen, in part, from the realization that schools can use existing resources to develop positive approaches to heading off delinquent behavior.

In the current climate of reassessing the nation's commitment to improving schools, funding remains a central question. Ordinary schools can implement prevention programs and maintain them over time. Some schools have funded prevention by shifting funds previously used for reactive or remedial programs. Experience has taught school leaders that investing in the start-up and evaluation of prevention programs brings a greater return on investment—especially in reduced costs associated with repeated vandalism and crime.

## A Few Final Words

In producing this handbook, with the assistance and cooperation of the United States Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention, NSBA recognizes that serious problems confront the nation's schools. We remain steadfast, however, in our belief that when these general concerns are addressed at the local level, school leaders will capture the inherent idealism and energy of school populations and put them to work on improving behavior and academic performance—an exciting prospect.

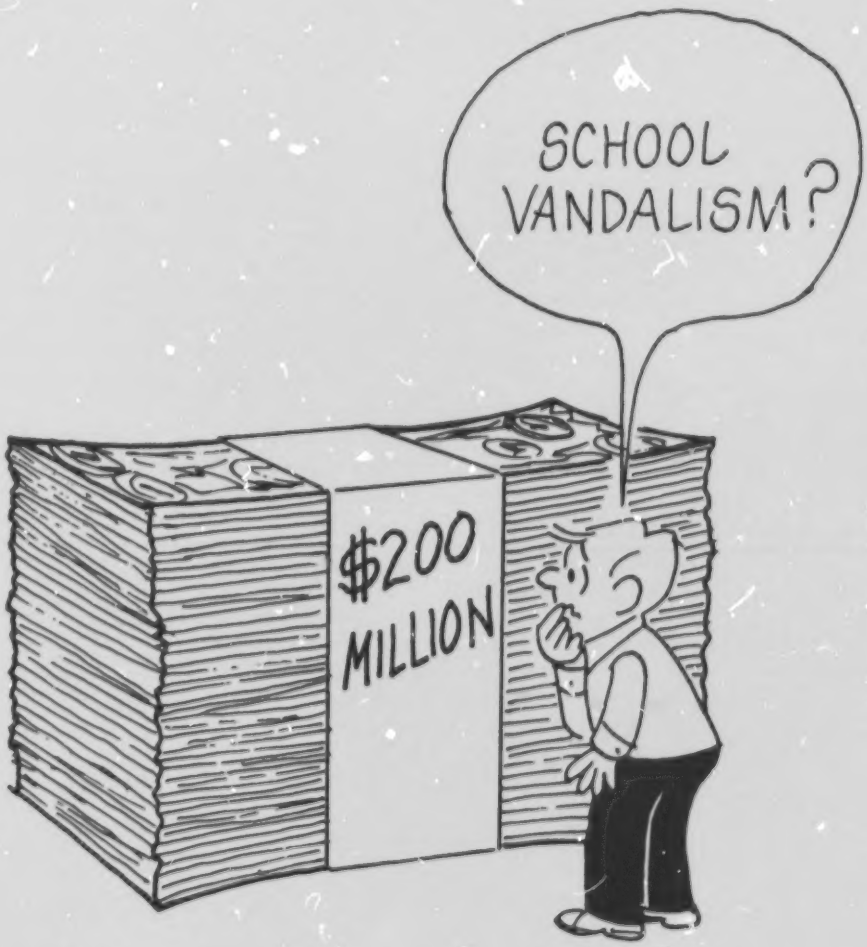
Very truly yours,



Thomas A. Shannon
Executive Director
National School Boards Association
Washington, D.C.

PART I

# UNDERSTANDING SCHOOL-BASED PREVENTION



CHAPTER 1

# Effective Schools and Delinquency Prevention

**Four years ago,** George Washington High School in the Watts neighborhood of Los Angeles was rife with gangs and drugs and had one of the lowest academic standings in the county. Then came a new principal who demanded discipline. The absentee rate dropped from 32 percent to 6 percent, and last year 80 percent of the graduating seniors went to college.

This handbook is intended as a guide for accomplishing such transformations, for creating better schools. Better than what? Better than any school in which violence and delinquency disrupt learning. A better school is a safer school, a school in which student and teacher feel safe about doing their jobs. A better school is one that is dedicated to working with all segments of its community, one that is committed to educating all its students, one that has responded to local needs and priorities. A better school is one whose goal is to graduate self-confident, self-sufficient young people who are prepared to work, to vote, and to become parents.

More than any other setting, the school influences how students, especially high school students, conform to society. When delinquent behavior disrupts schools, it handicaps not only students who habitually fail and become alienated, but other students as well—even model students. Researchers have found that a school's internal life influences how *all* students behave and learn, and often does so more powerfully than the home or community (Rutter, et al., 1979).

Creating a safe and orderly environment is prerequisite to any meaningful school improvement. It is unlikely that a student immersed in a school environment of delinquency will form a more sociable view of society at large. Many of the 1983 reports on educational reform—while agreeing on the need for curricular changes to develop "higher order thinking skills" and for increased expectations and standards for graduation—insist that little reform can occur unless schools become safer.

This chapter focuses on the broad policy issues of upgrading behavioral standards and enhancing the learning environment. The chapter's premise is that safety is the primary element in improving the school climate. Fearful students and teachers do not work well together and do not achieve their mutual goals. In addressing these policy issues, the chapter considers the nature and extent of juvenile crime, discusses its effects on the nation's schools, and provides an overview of school improvement for community members, policymakers, and practitioners who want to create safer schools. The chapter dispels myths, confronts hard facts, and examines the implications of legal mandates, particularly court decisions defining such matters as student rights, disciplinary procedures, and the special needs of learning-disabled students.

School quality and discipline are politically volatile, but no more so than a number of other education issues. With sensitive, balanced implementation, solutions need not create controversy.

What kind of sensitivity and balance? The kind that comes with the knowledge and understanding this handbook can provide. Sensitivity and balance means recognizing, for example, that equating disciplinary issues solely with the incidence of crime and violence will do little to solve the problem. It may actually foster policies that further alienate students. Such alienation is more than the school system's problem, because a student

*"Our speaker's topic is 'A Multivariate Analysis of Factors Engendering Negative Student Effect on Variegated Teaching-Learning Environment', or, 'Why Kids Hate School."*

alienated from school is alienated from society. This is one reason—a very dramatic reason—that law enforcement officials are interested in the schools. They are interested as much in the prevention of problems as in the enforcement of the law.

A sensitive and balanced approach is one thing, statistical evidence is another. Statistics cannot be ignored, although they require continuous monitoring. A case in point: when the National Institute of Education, a part of the U.S. Department of Education, completed its 1978 *Violent Schools—Safe Schools Study,* it found crime and violence most serious in elementary and junior high schools; whereas many experts today believe that serious disruption has shifted into junior and senior high schools. Such trends are always significant and require interpretation by the community and its policymakers.

Learning what works means knowing what does not work. But knowledge alone is not enough, because even the best solutions need the right kind of environment. Many educators have come to believe that more restrictive and punitive disciplinary measures have tended to deny education to the very students who need it most—the antisocial students in need of socializing. Does this suggest abandoning all restrictive and punitive measures to prevent delinquency? It does not. The evidence shows that such approaches—when carried out within the context of fundamental efforts to involve students in their own education—treat the disease and not merely its symptoms. This is balance and sensitivity.

In January 1984, New York high school senior Josiane Gregoire told the House Subcommittee on Elementary, Secondary and Vocational Education, "Discipline works in my school because we have dedicated teachers and varied, interesting classes." In other words, discipline in the right environment.

"Through our student government and consultative council votes," Gregoire told the lawmakers, "we feel that we are part of the whole process and are not just being dictated to. We believe in the rules of our school and in the way they are fairly and consistently applied, and in our right to tell our side of the story if things should go wrong."

This student spoke not only of justice, but also of a commitment to fairness: the right environment ensures fairness and combats arbitrariness. "It's one thing to restore good old-fashioned discipline in the classrooms; however, lessening student rights will not accomplish this," the young New Yorker warned. Researchers tend to agree. The era of the little red schoolhouse and what most people mean by old-fashioned discipline is gone. Many of today's schoolhouses serve immense, diverse populations. But that certainly does not mean an end to discipline. Nostalgia for a relatively uncomplicated past is fine; but it is important to remember that just as the problems today are greater, so are the resources and solutions.

Perhaps the simplest and most poignant old-fashioned ingredient of effective delinquency prevention is care. Josiane Gregoire offers eloquent testimony:

"As a high school student and youth advocate who trains young people on their rights and responsibilities, I find that, while most high school students know their responsibilities, most do not know their most basic and fundamental rights as students. So, it is not as if young people are saying, 'Gee, now that we have all these wonderful rights, let's see what we can get away with.'

"Children who face possible school suspension because of drugs, weapons, theft, or assault, or children who have to deal with failure or economic

*. . . school policies that inappropriately label . . .*

*"There is no incentive to learn if kids can get a diploma by serving time, like prisoners sitting in a classroom for a certain number of hours."*

Theodore Sizer
*Horace's Compromise: The Dilemma of the American High School*

problems and therefore consider dropping out, have serious, serious problems. They are not doing it just to test their rights or to defy authority. They need to know more than anything that people care about them, that people will take the time to analyze their situation and try to help them, not reject them."

How, then, to analyze, to help, and not to reject the troubled student who disrupts the learning climate of others? This chapter calls for specific action and encourages study and discussion by:

- Identifying important public attitudes about schooling;
- Defining the policy issues raised by these perceptions; and
- Focusing attention on the areas that research suggests positive policy and practice can influence and improve.

The chapter considers crime's monetary and social effects on education and discusses community- and school-based strategies. Primary prevention is the goal, since research and testing have proved Benjamin Franklin's famous adage, "An ounce of prevention is worth a pound of cure." Society must pay the bills sooner or later, and as law enforcement experts readily explain, sooner is much cheaper than later.

## Delinquency Prevention and Public Perception

Commissions, panels, task forces, contractors, and grantees have studied education to a fare-thee-well and have concluded that a stable school environment is crucial to any of the improvements they have urged. And despite researchers' focus on academic standards and improvements, "The Gallup Poll on the Public's Attitudes Toward the Public Schools" identifies discipline as the number one public concern in all but one year since 1969. Few doubt that this reflects the public's attitude toward crime in society. The schools are a highly visible and expensive symbol of society. The media have decried the high cost of crime and violence in the schools, and any citizen passing a school campus scarred by broken windows and graffiti knows that society is grappling with a major problem. It is tempting to address crime first and worry about improving education later. But the best approach is to do something about delinquency together with improving curricula and being sensitive to students' rights, responsibilities, and problems.

Even public pressure for improving students' cognitive skills and technological sophistication has not overshadowed the desire for safe and orderly schools. The public seems amply aware that the domestic and international marketplaces demand better educated students than American schools are generally turning out. But the public seems equally aware that fearful, disruptive, and chaotic schools are not apt to turn out competitive students. The mind needs nurturing, as surely as the good seed needs good soil.

The consensus is growing that improvement in the schools depends on safety, and that safety depends on improving the program and its environment. Such agreement about a national issue is unusual and should cheer communities and school boards, even though their task is complex. Another reason for cheer is that the great body of research suggests a palatable compromise of views: those who urge discipline and those whose concerns center on rights and improvements have a common meeting ground, for one group apparently cannot achieve its ends without achieving the other's as well.

Since research on reducing crime in schools confirms that order is a basic need if schools are to function at all, achieving order is not a shortsighted priority. It encompasses many other priorities, including community action: "It might be easier to change people through their participation in working on problems of importance to them than through efforts to bring about personal change" (Grant and Capell, 1983).

*"High schools must respect adolescents more and patronize them less. The best respect is high expectations for them, and a level of accountability more adult in its demand than childlike. We should expect them to learn more while being taught less. Their personal engagement with their own learning is crucial; adults cannot "give them an education."*

Theodore Sizer
*Horace's Compromise: The Dilemma of the American High School*

# Public Schooling for a Complex Society

The one-room schoolhouse had far less responsibility than most people remember or imagine. Religious institutions and the extended family shared the school's tasks and functions. In that era, families were bigger and less mobile, society was often more homogeneous, and religious teaching tended to be more influential. The school played a key role in society, but not such a lonely role, and there was not as much pressure on the school to produce responsible and effective citizens as there is today. Often those who are nostalgic for this institution forget that family and religion played larger formative roles than they now do.

***"The system was opened up to vastly greater numbers of students, with vastly greater variance in educational proficiency. The test scores constantly declined, and we used that decline—not as an indicator of the success of the social experiment, as we might have, but as an indicator of the failure of the system."***

William Pierce, Executive Director
Council of Chief State School Officers (1984)

With the industrialization of the nation and the ensuing population boom, the schoolhouse became campus, highrise, feeder, day care provider, and magnet for adult activities. Society was becoming more complex. Getting along in it required more education. As this was happening, public concern about the quality of education was growing—long before such slogans as "back to basics."

Educational historian Lawrence Cremin has noted a public yearning for the symbolic comfort of the little red schoolhouse and has tried to put it in perspective by explaining that it was extraordinarily influential in its heyday because it was consistently reinforced by other educative institutions in society. The teaching and the support of values were not confined to schools, as they often are today. Yet,

***"I never let schooling interfere with my education."***

Mark Twain

paradoxically, the school—whether the small country building, the great campus, or the urban highrise—remains the principal lever for the creation and development of a good society. Another way to view this is that, for more than 100 years, the public eye has focused steadily on the schools as the primary institution that prepares young people to become useful citizens; and yet this same public eye only briefly and occasionally scans the vast array of new issues and factors that impinge on the schools in ways unheard of, indeed unimagined, 100 years ago.

Parents and community leaders today, perforce sometimes and unimaginatively in other instances, urge the public schools to assume enormous responsibility for educating and socializing young people. And the demands almost invariably predate concern for the cost, a dilemma that plagues school boards and administrators. But after perhaps two decades of unremitting pressure on the schools to perform what many would describe as miracles, public expectations seem to be changing subtly. Major study organizations, such as the Education Commission of the States, the National Commission on Excellence in Education, and the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, among others, have documented that schools will not meet public expectations without broader and organized partnerships involving the public and the business community.

Such partnerships suggest themselves because of the wide agreement that the improvement of standards, teacher pay and qualifications, textbook development, and the creation of safe learning environments is necessary to restore American schools to their former level of public respect. Education leaders, particularly school board members, have largely succeeded in making the electorate aware of the costs of such initiatives. Local, state, and federal monies do not fully cover the expenses, and it seems inevitable that reforms must draw resources from the community. Parents, students, and other citizens must join in this work. Disciplines, expertises, and technologies developed in arenas other than education must play a role in making schools safer and better. Business leaders, with their experience at making ideas work, must become involved in educational reform. After all, they have a vested interest in reform, because it is from the schools that they must draw their work forces. Computers can play a powerful role in connecting schools with the world of work. This is

*"It seems that we may have lost sight of the fact that school is for kids. Schools do not exist to meet the needs of administrators, nor teachers, nor parents. If, through our need for control and power, we fail to meet the needs of students, then there is no longer a need for schools, at least as we know them today."*

Bill Maynard, former Principal
Cleveland High School
Seattle, Washington

an especially promising development, because computers can be fun to understand and operate. Moreover, they remind students of the science fiction that absorbs them in film, television, and even music.

## Turning the Tide of Mediocrity

A "rising tide of mediocrity" threatens to engulf our schools, warned *A Nation at Risk* (National Commission on Excellence in Education, 1983). Nor is that the only recent report to sound the alarm.

But signs of stemming and even reversing the tide of mediocrity have appeared in the last decade. The Ford Foundation's (1984) two-year investigation of 300 high schools in 57 cities, for example, finds improvements in learning climates, restored discipline, and upward movement in academic achievement. The study affirms the view of many educators that public perceptions sometimes lag significantly behind new realities.

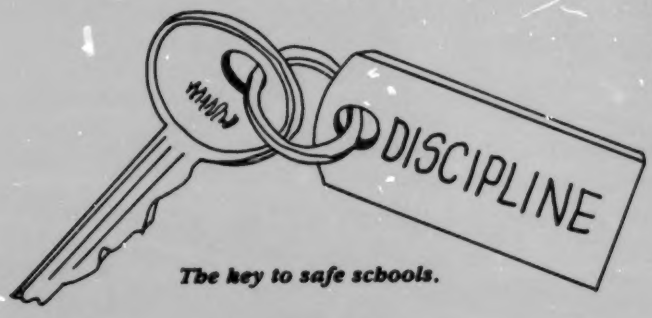
*The rising tide of school reports.*

If polls are benchmarks, there is ample evidence that such perception gaps, as they might be called, are closing in the wake of renewed professional commitment to improving the schools. The public remains steadfast, however, in its insistence that making schools better goes hand in hand with making them safer.

Widespread support for making schools safer reflects the fact that the deterioration of quality and safety is no longer confined to major urban centers. Today, delinquency knows no geographic or demographic bounds.

## Effective Schooling

An "effective schools movement" has supplanted the skepticism that began in 1966 with the publication of *Equality of Educational Opportunity* (Coleman) and continued in research by Christopher Jencks (1972) and Michael Katz (1975). Jencks and Katz, in the absence of documentation from other researchers, concluded that environmental influences outside the schools have greater effect on academic achievement than do the schools.




*The key to safe schools.*

In the 1980s, proponents of the effective schools movement have declared that all students are educable, no matter how discouraging their home and community environments. This more optimistic view means recognizing an intricate relationship between academic performance, behavior, and social, political, and cultural influences on a student's life. But recognition is just the beginning. The larger task is to determine what the schools should teach, and what they should expect of students. Each community's special circumstances shape the answers, but common elements are surfacing.

The Educational Equality Project of the College Board, a 10-year effort begun in 1980, has built a consensus among secondary school and college educators for a core curriculum to redefine and strengthen academic preparation for college. And many states now require high school graduates to pass life skills competency tests, as well as academic achievement tests.

Tests themselves have fallen under scrutiny as the effective schools movement gathers steam. The Advisory Panel on the Scholastic Aptitude Test Score Decline, for example, has prompted a change in how standardized tests are used to assess quality. The panel has popularized the view that causes for test score declines are extremely complex and that school boards, administrators, and the public may be misusing tests as sole indicators of educational progress. This rethinking of a traditional approach reflects the spirit of a reform movement eager for new ways to look at familiar problems.

James Coleman is among those who have considered and reconsidered the causes for alarm in the 1960s, and in *High School Achievement* (Coleman, et al., 1982) he writes: "When study of the effects of school characteristics on achievement began on a broad scale in the 1960s, those . . . most studied were the traditional ones: per pupil expenditures, laboratory facilities, libraries, recency of textbooks, and breadth of course offerings. These characteristics showed little or no consistent relation to achievement. . . . Characteristics of schools that are currently found to be related to achievement . . . can be broadly divided into two areas: academic demands and discipline."

Academic demands and discipline. Better schools are safer schools. Effective schools need not sacrifice academic standards to the prevention of delinquency. Indeed, although research on what makes schools effective is neither definitive nor conclusive, it does warrant hope that, by improving the learning environment, schools can offset negative outside influences and promote higher academic performances.

***". . . the proposed curricular changes (toward greater specification of the subject requirements for high school graduation), if not accompanied by substantial improvements in pedagogy, could increase the high school dropout rate, already too high. The quality of an educational institution must be judged on its holding power, not just on assessments of its graduates."***

John Goodlad
*A Place Called School: Prospects for the Future*

Early effective schools assessments, such as the Ford Foundation's study, show that before schools improved academically, they made sustained efforts to improve students' behavior, including their attendance, promptness, courtesy, overall conduct, dress, and grooming.

A consensus on priorities is fundamental to progress in education. The evidence is that schools will live up to public expectations when there are:

- School officials committed to enlisting the help and participation of all segments of the community;

***"Twenty-four percent of the students interviewed were favorable to the new educational program, 22 percent were neutral, 18 percent were negative, and 36 percent dozed off during questioning."***

- Communities cooperating with schools to curb vandalism, truancy, and poor performance by creating equal opportunities and a participatory spirit that helps bond students to their schools;
- Teachers receiving both direct administrative and community support and informal help in corridors, cafeterias, recreational areas, and outside the schools;
- Administrators with policy support and the freedom to manage schools effectively; and
- Students who are encouraged to feel part of a growing community enterprise, to master basic skills, and to apply their school experiences to their entire lives.

***"Schools are in pretty good shape. . . . What's changed are people's expectations. Every 10 or 15 years, Americans say everything is awful, then turn around and set higher aspirations."***

Harold Hodgkinson
Senior Fellow at IEL and former director of NIE

## Expectations and Policy

The tasks confronting school board members and practitioners are many and tough: setting academic standards, keeping schools tranquil, deciding which expectations are reasonable, making instructional time, setting and maintaining teaching standards, testing, and paying for everything. ***A Blueprint for Educational Excellence*** (National School Boards Association, 1984) details the findings of major studies and their implications for policymakers who must meet the challenges such tasks entail.

This handbook examines these issues in the context of creating a safe and orderly school environment. Policymakers who hope to secure such an environment cannot merely rely on external controls—such as more visible police, more guards, or better alarm systems—or traditional approaches—such as punishment, removing troublemakers, and similar measures—which often harden delinquent behavior patterns, alienate troubled youths from the schools, and foster distrust. The delinquent rarely knows it, but the school is his or her ticket out of the problems that encourage delinquency. The job of the schools is to communicate this elusive fact.

One of the most common findings of research on effective schools and delinquency prevention is that school boards foster better and safer school climates when policies stress increased communication; well-defined, uniformly and fairly applied standards of behavior; and student, school, staff, and community involvement.

"Schools with positive climates are constantly changing as people reshape them in accordance with human needs. In such schools school improvement is everybody's business," concludes researcher Eugene Howard. He observes that schools with positive climates are cohesive. "People know what their school stands for . . . procedures, rules, regulations, and policies serve the people in the schools." But who are the people in the schools? All too often, the troubled students see the answer as only the teachers and administrators. The answer must be everybody in every school, including the students. School board policies designed to improve learning climates should stress:

- Clear goals for academic achievement;
- Well-defined, behavioral standards applied uniformly and fairly;
- High expectations that are clearly and confidently communicated to students, parents, staff, and community;
- School environments that encourage student participation and offer the most hospitable situations for learning and achieving.

***DISCIPLINE POLICY***

"The ultimate goal of any discipline policy or procedure should be for students to achieve self-responsibility and self-discipline. . . . Sometimes school boards find it easier to change policy and procedures to function as control mechanisms, rather than as guidelines, when severe discipline problems exist. A good check in these instances is to remember that effective schools have an orderly climate that allows students to pursue their educational goals without interference from other students; effective schools do not have an oppressive climate that keeps students from exercising self-discipline."

Jim Huge
NSBA's *Updating School Board Policies*
September 1983

Researchers Stewart C. Purkey and Marshall S. Smith (1983) admit it is unclear why one school develops high expectations and goals, while another does not. Purkey and Smith are certain, however, that policymakers should evolve a framework for "understanding the problem and . . . how to move toward a solution." Many other educators share this belief in careful analysis and planning to upgrade school environments. To accomplish the task, policymakers must understand juvenile delinquency, and that means knowing the facts and dispelling the myths.

## Juvenile Crime

Here is how national crime reports define the problem:

- Half of all arrests for UCR Index Crimes are youths under age 20, and four-fifths are males.
- Youths under age 18 are more likely than older persons to be arrested for property crimes.
- Juveniles commit approximately 30 percent of violent crimes.
- Juvenile females represent 6.3 percent of all arrests for serious crimes and are most often involved in larceny.

(Department of Justice, 1983).

Those are facts. Myths abound. One of the most persistent is that nearly all juvenile offenses occur in big cities. The fact is that juveniles from all social classes and in all geographic areas commit crimes. According to NIE's 1978 Safe Schools Study, self-reporting data establish that as many as 90 percent of youths under the age of 18 commit crimes for which they could be arrested. Although the study cautions that there are no absolutes, it finds some problems common to a group or an area. More females than males run away, for example, and more males commit violent crimes. Anti-school offenses tend to occur more often in the northeastern and western states than in the central and southern states.

Here are the facts about some common myths that confound policymaking:

- ***Myth:*** ***Delinquency rates are higher among blacks.***
  ***Fact:*** According to self-reporting data, black and white students have similar delinquency rates.
- ***Myth:*** ***Large numbers of juveniles commit serious and violent crimes.***
  ***Fact:*** The relative proportion of serious juvenile offenders is small; the violent few are likely to commit multiple crimes.

- ***Myth:*** *Juveniles commit the overwhelming majority of violent crimes.*
  ***Fact:*** Juveniles commit approximately 32 percent of Federal Bureau of Investigation Uniform Crime Index crimes. Index crimes include the major property crimes of burglary, larceny-theft, motor vehicle theft, and arson, as well as the violent crimes of murder and non negligent manslaughter, forcible rape, robbery, and aggravated assault.

***DELINQUENCY AND STATUS OFFENSES: KNOWING THE DIFFERENCE***

| | |
|---|---|
| JUVENILE: | a person who, by reason of age, falls under the jurisdiction of the Juvenile Court or similar court. States have different age cutoffs; but for statistical purposes, a juvenile is older than 10 and younger than 18 years. |
| DELINQUENT: | a juvenile who has committed an act, including violation of state laws and local ordinances, that would be a crime if the child were an adult. |
| STATUS OFFENDER: | a juvenile who has committed an act, legally prohibited to juveniles, that would *not* be a crime if committed by an adult. Such an act is also called "noncriminal behavior." |

Which of the following violations of your school policies, local ordinances, or state laws would be considered delinquent acts? Which ones would be status offenses?

| | Delinquent Act | Status Offense |
|---|---|---|
| 1. Drinking on school property | _____ | _____ |
| 2. Theft of school property | _____ | _____ |
| 3. Trespassing on school grounds after hours | _____ | _____ |
| 4. Assault on a teacher | _____ | _____ |
| 5. Indiscriminate sexual behavior | _____ | _____ |

- ***Myth:*** *Delinquent behavior is likely to increase as students proceed through their adolescence.*
  ***Fact:*** Males between the ages of 15 and 17 commit most juvenile offenses. After juveniles reach the age of 17, delinquent behavior decreases.
- ***Myth:*** *Males are more likely than females to be treated harshly by the juvenile justice system.*
  ***Fact:*** Although significantly fewer females than males come into contact with the system, females are more likely to be detained, are held longer, and are twice as likely to be brought into court for status offenses (offenses that would not be crimes if committed by an adult).
- ***Myth:*** *School violence is usually interracial.*
  ***Fact:*** The majority of juvenile crime occurs among victims and offenders of the same race.

(U.S. Department of Justice 1982).

***"Control is much more expensive than prevention. I think that it takes much less money to provide adequate programs for large numbers of children than it does to incarcerate one or two or three or four children in an institution with all kinds of special support systems. It seems to me that it's much easier to have the effort be in the beginning—beyond actual savings of dollars and cents it would also save a lot of misery in society as a whole."***

Hunter John
Seattle Public Defenders Office
*Preventing Delinquency* (film, 1982).

## School Crime

It is no myth that serious juvenile crime is a national problem. And it is no myth that crime in schools is a national problem. The most recent documentation of the financial and educational costs of crime in our schools is NIE's 1978 study, which painted an alarming picture.

- Approximately 25 percent of the nation's schools were vandalized each month.
- The cost of school vandalism exceeded $200 million annually.
- Burglaries occurred five times more often in schools than in businesses.

***"I work a six hour day, five days a week, 30 weeks a year, and this is the thanks I get!"***

- The average cost of thefts of school equipment, supplies, or other property was $150.
- Break-ins, bomb incidents, trespass cases, extortions, and thefts of school property were the *least* likely offenses to be reported—even though one of every 100 schools experienced a bomb-related offense in a typical month.
- Each month, nearly 282,000 students were attacked at school.
- Younger students were the most likely victims of attacks or robberies at school.
- Each month, more than 2.4 million secondary school students were victims of theft, much of which involved force, weapons, or threats.
- Forty percent of the robberies and 36 percent of the assaults on teenagers occurred in schools. The statistics were higher for youths 12-15 years of age.
- Each month, approximately 130,000 of the 1.1 million secondary teachers had something worth at least a dollar stolen from them.
- Approximately 5,200 teachers reported being physically attacked.
- Teachers were five times as likely as students to be seriously injured in an attack.

Although no one has undertaken a comprehensive national follow-up of the Safe Schools Study, studies of specific schools and localities and reports by groups such as the Working Group on School Violence and Discipline (1984), indicate that widespread victimization of students and teachers continues to plague American education.

For example, Boston's Safe Schools Commission (1983) found that in 1982-83:

- Three out of 10 students admitted to carrying weapons to school.

### *CHARACTERISTICS OF SCHOOLS RELATED TO RATES OF TEACHER VICTIMIZATION*

In *junior high schools* the following school characteristics appear to contribute to rates of teacher victimization:

1. The greater the resources for teaching, the less teacher victimization.
2. The larger the school, the more teacher victimization.
3. The more grades are used as a sanction, or the more misconduct is ignored, the more teacher victimization.
4. The more punitive the attitudes of teachers in a school, the greater teacher victimization.
5. The more students perceive the rule enforcement as firm and clear, the less teacher victimization.

In *senior high schools* the following school characteristics appear to contribute to rates of teacher victimization:

1. The larger the number of students taught by the average teacher, the greater teacher victimization.
2. The greater the teaching resources, the less teacher victimization.
3. The better the teacher-administration cooperation, the less teacher victimization.
4. The more ambiguous sanctions are used (lowering grades as a disciplinary practice and ignoring misconduct), the more teacher victimization.
5. The more punitive the attitudes of teachers in a school, the greater teacher victimization.
6. The more students as a group believe in conventional social rules, the less teacher victimization.

(Gottfredson, 1983).

- Half of the teachers and almost 40 percent of the students were victims of school robbery, assault, or larceny.
- Nearly four in 10 students often feared for their safety in school or reported avoiding corridors and restrooms.

The one-year Boston study involved nine hearings around the city and surveys at four of 17 high schools, interviews of 495 students and responses to questionnaires from 469 teachers. Two high schools had low suspension rates; two had high rates.

"Overall, we found too much disruption, violence and fear in the city's schools," said retired state supreme court justice Paul C. Reardon, chairman of the commission. "We consider unacceptable the upset of learning that goes on, the theft and vandalism, the possession of weapons and drugs, disorder on buses and physical and verbal abuse," Judge Reardon said.

Superintendent Robert R. Spillane, who receives weekly reports on violence in Boston's schools, was surprised at the level of violence reported by the commission.

Ominous evidence indicates the trend toward disrupted schools continues nationwide. The Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention in the U.S. Department of Justice has conducted a research and development study (Weis and Hawkins, 1983) indicating a significant amount of illegal juvenile activities in seven selected national sites: Bangor, Maine; Brooklyn, New York; Delray Beach, Florida; Paterson, New Jersey; Reading, Pennsylvania; Seattle, Washington; and Waterbury, Connecticut. Researchers surveyed 9th graders in Paterson and 7th graders in the other cities. More than 10 percent of the students surveyed in Brooklyn, Reading, Seattle, and Waterbury admitted having broken windows of a school building. The proportion who admitted stealing from desks or lockers ranged from 6.6 percent in Paterson to 21.7 percent in Seattle. At the same time, students who reported being the victims of such thefts ranged from 42.6 percent in Paterson to 72.2 percent in Delray Beach. Proportions ranging from 5.5 to 19.5 percent of students reported being physically attacked. For teachers, the rate of physical assaults ranged from 0 to 16.4 percent. More than half of the teachers in five of the seven cities reported that students verbally abused or swore at them. In Reading, the figure was 80 percent.

***CATCHING FLIES WITH HONEY . . .***

"Evidence indicates that teachers who use punitive measures to discipline usually face increased inappropriate student behavior. But in those classrooms where established procedures are communicated effectively and are understood by both teacher and student, where appropriate behavior is rewarded, and where there are solid instructional goals and priorities, there is far less disruptive behavior."

Jim Huge
NSBA's *Updating School Board Policies*
September 1983

## Not All Crimes Are Reported

The President's Working Group on School Violence and Discipline suggests that estimates of the cost of juvenile crime are too low (1984). The group found it difficult to compile exact aggregate statistics because many attacks and robberies—even violent ones—go unreported to police or staff. According to the Safe Schools Study, approximately two-thirds of personal thefts and robberies and almost three-fourths of property damages go unreported to police (NIE, 1978). Superintendents commonly offer a number of reasons for this phenomenon.

1. Districts and school administrators do not report incidents because they:
   - Wish to avoid bad publicity;
   - Sense they will be blamed;
   - Wish to avoid litigation;
   - Think some offenses too minor to report;
   - Prefer to rely on their own security and discipline;
   - Suspect the police and courts will not cooperate; and
   - Fear they will be regarded as ineffective.

2. Teachers refrain from reporting because they:
   - Sense they will be blamed;
   - Wish to avoid litigation;
   - Fear retaliation by the offender;
   - Have trouble identifying offenders; and
   - Do not wish to stigmatize young offenders.

   (American Association of School Administrators, 1981).

***"People who take charge of their own learning can master more things, and master them better, than those who rely on being taught. They tend to have greater zest, retain more of what they have learned, and make better use of it in their living."***

Dr. William Guillory
University of Utah

## The Principal's Role Is Crucial

One conclusion of the Safe Schools Study bears emphasis. Principals play a central role in safety. Principals perceived as strong leaders and influential role models, for teachers as well as students, tend to administer safer schools. The NIE study did not evaluate instructional or administrative effectiveness but produced a profile of the safer school, which closely resembles the profile of the effective school. The principal of the safer school:

- States rules clearly;
- Enforces them fairly and firmly;
- Succeeds in winning teachers' agreement with his or her educational and managerial style;
- Instills cohesiveness and high morale among teachers;
- Emphasizes academic success;
- Involves the community in making decisions;
- Rewards individual improvement and achievement;
- Encourages a sense of personal relationship between students and teachers;
- Inspires a strong school spirit;
- Succeeds in convincing students that curricula are relevant and valuable; and, finally,
- Overcomes the sense among alienated students that the school is a meaningless or hostile environment in which they have no control over what happens to them.

***The principal's leadership remains key to having safer schools.***

## Strategies Against Fear

"The overwhelming evidence tells us that punishment and denial of justice are inappropriate, ineffective and counterproductive ways of changing and improving behavior in our democracy." This cautionary advice comes from Irwin A. Hyman, Ed.D., of Temple University (January 1984). He believes "we lack objectivity in examining the issues of discipline and punishment." In other words, many schools persist in practices and environments that cause or reinforce disciplinary problems.

But Dr. Hyman is not suggesting, nor are any of the experts, that crimes of violence and vandalism go unpublished. What many of these experts are saying is that even-handed policies, practices, and governance can effectively address less serious forms of disruptive behavior.

Having considered the principal's role and characteristics of schools directed by strong principals, the chapter now considers a study of 500 well-disciplined schools conducted by the Phi Delta Kappan Commission on Discipline. Dr. William Wayson, commission chairman and a professor at Ohio State University, has said of these schools that they seem orderly, safe, and productive while allowing students to "develop the values, attitudes and skills that are the basis for responsible

*"About the format for our program on school discipline. . . "*

participation in a free society." The leaders of these 500 successful schools:

- Continue to do many good things done by good educators for a long time;
- Emphasize total environments conducive to good behavior, rather than isolated practices dealing specifically with disciplinary problems;
- Regard school as a place in which to do valuable, successful, productive work;
- Make most decisions for the benefit of the students;
- Keep their eyes on causes instead of on symptoms;
- Favor prevention over punishment;
- Adapt common practice to their own needs and style;
- Play a central role;
- Support and are supported by staff members;
- Have faith in their students and themselves and expend their energies to make this belief come true;
- Encourage teachers to handle all or most routine disciplinary problems;
- Have stronger than average ties with parents and community; and
- Welcome and use critical reviews from school and community.

## School Discipline and the Courts

Despite the fact that many courthouses exhibit graven words of wisdom on their facades for posterity, the legal process is evolutionary, and decisions are reinterpreted regularly. Knowing this, the White House Working Group of the Cabinet Committee on Human Resources (1984) cautioned against "overly timid readings of court decisions that, however troublesome, may at times have been extended beyond their original meanings by government and school officials." In other words, throw out the bath water, but keep the baby. The committee continued, "Those decisions have been read as requiring schools to exhaust cumbersome legalistic procedures before imposing discipline."

This is a touchy problem. Court decisions have understandably worried and sometimes perplexed school boards. School officials may interpret them too rigidly and therefore, feel hamstrung and resent them. The White House Working Group's implication is that officials do not have to abandon common sense in order to comply with the law.

Once the U.S. Supreme Court handed down its decision in 1975 in the case of *Goss v. Lopez* (419 U.S. 565), school administrators across the country had to adjust their disciplinary procedures. The decision said it is unconstitutional to suspend students without notice and opportunity for a hearing. The court held that schools may suspend a student for up to 10 days if:

1. The student receives oral or written notice of the charges;
2. Any student who denies the charges receives an explanation of the evidence on which they are based; and
3. School personnel conduct a hearing, even an informal one, and allow the student a chance to explain his or her case.

Complicated situations, or cases that might result in longer suspensions or even expulsions, require more formal procedures, such as apprising students of their rights to counsel and to confront witnesses.

*"Hello, Mom? He said I was allowed one phone*

Did *Goss v. Lopez* tie the hands of school administrators? Some said so. Some deplored it. But the trend is to consider it an opportunity to demonstrate fairness to students, safeguard their rights, and involve them in educative processes.

Ideas about corporal punishment have changed, too. In 1977, the U.S. Supreme Court (*Ingraham v. Wright,* 430 U.S. 651) ruled that the Eighth Amendment barring cruel and unusual punishment applies only to criminals and has no bearing on disciplining public school students. Nonetheless, corporal punishment is prohibited in Hawaii, Massachusetts, New Jersey, Maine, and the District of Columbia, and many school districts forbid spanking, smacking, slapping, and other forms of corporal punishment.

School officials retain broad discretion over discipline, but they must be well-versed in the relevant law. They cannot, for example, suspend students for asserting First Amendment rights of free speech, free press, or association, unless the officials can prove that the exercise of these rights substantially disrupts the school environment. The definition of substantial disruption is well left to legal counsel and precedent. The courts have also prohibited school officials from disciplining students for behavior off school grounds, outside school hours, or when no school sponsorship is involved, unless the officials can substantiate that the students' behavior interferes with the operation of the school.

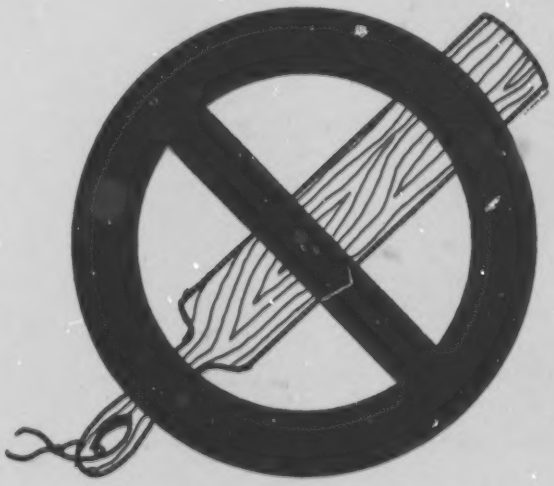
### *CORPORAL PUNISHMENT*

"The effectiveness of corporal punishment continues to be debated. Research basically says that corporal punishment has little if any long-range effect in terms of teaching students self-discipline. At best, it is a way to get their attention and control them at a point where that control is needed. But also, it is teaching students that physical force is an appropriate method for settling problems.

"The decision to allow corporal punishment should be made by the board and stated in approved policy. But such a decision should reflect the community's values, and the opportunity for community members to voice their opinions should be provided.

"Also, procedures for administering corporal punishment must be clearly defined and reviewed by the school attorney to reflect federal and state laws and court decisions. At a minimum, corporal punishment regulations should include that the punishment will be administered privately and in the presence of an adult witness. Written information regarding the use of corporal punishment should be sent to each parent or guardian to be signed and returned to the school before the punishment is carried out."

Jim Huge
NSBA's *Updating School Board Policies*
September 1983



***Several states prohibit the use of corporal punishment***

# The Special Case of Handicapped Students

Many who sit on school boards today attended schools where learning disabilities were never mentioned, never recognized. Today, educators realize that a learning disability, such as dyslexia, is as surely a handicap as is palsy. The courts have recognized this fact in decisions that impinge on delinquency prevention. School officials have learned that applying traditional disciplines to handicapped or disabled students may be counterproductive. Indeed, the courts have prohibited schools from suspending students whose handicaps somehow account for their disruptive behavior. But where schools respond sensitively to the needs of handicapped students, such restrictions are unnecessary. (For a longer discussion of the legal issues involved in disciplining handicapped students see Gittens, 1983).

In the 1970's, a study captured the attention of school leaders nationwide by identifying a correlation between learning disabilities and delinquency. The study found that 90.4 percent of young persons in the custody of the Colorado youth correctional agency exhibited two or more learning disabilities. Subsequent studies have shown that students in special education classes are much more likely to behave disruptively (Murray, 1976).

Examination of a representative sample of youths in public schools, juvenile courts, and correctional facilities disclosed significant relationships between delinquency and learning disabilities, even when researchers took into account socioeconomic backgrounds and tendencies to give socially approved responses. Learning-disabled males tended to be violent and disruptive and to abuse drugs more than did males exhibiting no disabilities. Learning-disabled males were also more likely to be arrested and involved in the juvenile justice system (Dunivant, 1982).

In another study, researchers observed 351 initially non delinquent males for two years from a cross-section sample selected from public schools in Baltimore, Indianapolis and Phoenix. Over time, the learning disabled among them engaged in more delinquent behavior than did the others (Dunivant, 1982).

As with non handicapped youth, delinquency prevention programs appear to succeed with learning-disabled students. Analysis of one project suggests that sustained and individualized remedial instruction of learning-disabled students, who had not been adjudicated by juvenile justice authorities, not only improved their academic performance, but also reduced their delinquent behavior. The effectiveness of the project, however, depended on how much help the student received: 40 to 50 hours before significant improvements occurred. Other crucial factors were the student's age, ethnicity, performance IQ, and prior history of delinquency.

Delinquency is prevented primarily because of the relationship established between students and learning-disability specialists and not because of improved academic skills (Dunivant, 1982). The special interaction between student and teacher may have socialized the student enough to inhibit delinquent behavior. In other words, student and teacher became friends, and the teacher became the student's role model. Such a finding, if substantiated by later research, will doubtless influence all delinquency prevention programs.

The larger task is to apply the best of what research has shown about helping disabled students within the overall framework of mainstreaming them—entitling and enabling them to participate in

### *LEARNING DISABILITIES*

A learning disability is a disorder in the basic process of understanding or using language, spoken or written. Children with learning disabilities can have average or above average intelligence. Some learning disabilities are:

- Perceptual handicaps such as seeing letters and numbers backwards, not being able to perceive the word unit on a page, not being able to understand oral information or take directions, and not being able to remember sequence.
- Brain injury, which can be caused by an accident like near-drowning, or a blow to the head, or high fever. Some brain injury can occur before or during childbirth.
- Minimal brain dysfunction where there is a mild neurological abnormality causing learning or behavioral problems, such as hyperactivity.
- Dyslexia, which is a disturbance of the ability to read.
- Developmental aphasia, which is the inability to use or understand spoken language.

For more information, write the National Legal Resource Center for Child Advocacy and Protection, a program of the American Bar Association Young Lawyers Division, 1800 M Street, N.W., S-200, Washington, D.C. 20036.

the full range of school life without discriminating against them because of their handicaps. That some disabled students find it difficult to control their behavior complicates the task but does not dilute the recognition that unacceptable behavior is a problem of creating order, discipline, and safety and is, at the same time, an educational responsibility.

## Suspension and Expulsion

Each year more than 1.5 million American students miss a day or more of school because they have been suspended or expelled. And yet the thrust of most research is that these extreme measures are losing their effectiveness. It seems evident that this is an issue for entire communities—not just educators—to ponder.

Here is what the best research offers regarding suspension and expulsion:

- Suspended students lose valuable instruction and are likely to distrust the authority that has rejected them.
- Suspended students often suffer labels, such as "problem kid."
- Minority students are disproportionately suspended and expelled.
- Suspension rewards teachers and others for avoiding classroom responsibilities.
- Suspended students are usually the very students who most need direct instruction.
- Some schools forfeit funds for each suspended or expelled student, under average daily attendance formulas.

Moreover, removing students from schools may actually contribute to delinquency by putting more jobless youth on the streets. Richard de Lone and May Long (1983) cite several studies illustrating the enormous social and economic costs society incurs from youth unemployment:

- One study noted that for every 1 percent increase in unemployment, a corresponding rise of 4 percent occurred in what is a predominantly youthful prison population.

***1980 HIGH SCHOOL SOPHOMORES WHO DROPPED OUT BEFORE GRADUATION***

| | Male | Female | Total |
|---|---|---|---|
| All students | 14.7% | 12.6% | 13.6% |
| Race/ethnicity | | | |
| American Indian and Alaskan Natives | 27.2 | 31.8 | 29.2 |
| Hispanic | 18.1 | 18.0 | 18.0 |
| Black | 20.3 | 14.1 | 17.0 |
| White | 13.0 | 11.5 | 12.2 |
| Asian American | 3.5 | 2.7 | 3.1 |
| Socioeconomic status | | | |
| High | 7.0 | 3.2 | 5.2 |
| Middle | 9.6 | 8.3 | 9.0 |
| Low | 17.8 | 17.1 | 17.4 |
| Unknown | 32.3 | 30.9 | 31.6 |
| Community type | | | |
| Urban | 20.8 | 17.0 | 18.9 |
| Suburban | 12.5 | 11.0 | 11.8 |
| Rural | 13.6 | 12.0 | 12.8 |
| Geographic region | | | |
| Northeast | 13.4 | 9.0 | 11.3 |
| North Central | 12.2 | 11.7 | 12.0 |
| South | 16.4 | 14.0 | 15.2 |
| West | 17.0 | 16.3 | 16.6 |
| High school program | | | |
| Academic | 4.5 | 3.6 | 4.0 |
| General | 12.7 | 13.0 | 12.9 |
| Vocational-technical | 15.9 | 13.2 | 15.1 |
| School type | | | |
| Public | 15.5 | 13.6 | 14.5 |
| Catholic | 3.2 | 1.6 | 2.3 |
| Other private | * | * | * |
| Self-reported grade | | | |
| Mostly As | 2.0 | 3.5 | 2.9 |
| Mostly Bs | 7.8 | 8.4 | 8.1 |
| Mostly Cs | 18.1 | 19.1 | 18.5 |
| Mostly Ds | 41.7 | 44.1 | 42.5 |

*Note: All percentages are based on computations using weights that are adjusted for non response and unequal probabilities of sample selection.*

** Not included because of a small sample size and a high non response rate in the base-year survey.*

Source: National Center for Education Statistics

*"Hooray, no school tomorrow! I've been expelled!"*

- A cost-benefit analysis of the Job Corps, which offered training to disadvantaged youth, found that the program saved society about $2,300 in criminal costs per participant.
- The State of Michigan found that its 1980 cost for youth unemployment was $100 million, including expenditures for welfare, insurance, crime-related activities and incarceration, and lost opportunities—the social and community benefits foregone by the idle workforce.

Some school officials believe the advantages of suspension outweigh its drawbacks:

- Suspension is convenient and, compared to alternatives, requires little time, effort, or resources, and does not need to be planned, programmed, or monitored.
- By leaving administrators little discretion, school district policies can make discipline systematic, consistent, and perhaps legally airtight.
- Many school officials simply believe that suspension works.

But evidence shows that suspension often fails. While finding that it can be effective in some cases, the Children's Defense Fund (CDF) found that students who already resist attending school often regard suspension as a reward (CDF, 1975.) CDF concluded that 63.4 percent of all suspensions were for infractions of school rules, not for dangerous or violent acts. A follow-up study in Michigan confirmed this conclusion: "Suspensions are not utilized to separate students guilty of serious misconduct, but for the most part are used as a response to relatively minor misbehavior" (Williams, 1979). Only three percent of all suspensions and expulsions are for major offenses; the rest are for minor infractions such as tardiness, truancy, smoking, and dress code violations (Sorenson, 1982).

## How In-School Programs Succeed

Effective delinquency prevention in-school programs tend to assess carefully the causes of problems. (See Chapter 4.)

William Wayson, the Ohio State University professor who directed the Phi Delta Kappan study of discipline, has stated that many disciplinary problems derive from dysfunctions in the governance of schools and therefore, "Punishing students or staff members whose behavior is governed by those dysfunctions is a foolish and fruitless way to approach the problems which are symptomatic of institutional causes."

Dr. Irwin Hyman of Temple University has posed a vexing question: "In New Jersey, some high schools in inner cities lose almost half their students by the time they become seniors. What happens to these dropouts and pushouts? How many return to the schools, or hang around the school causing problems?"

- Some 800,000 young people drop out of school each year.
- Twenty-eight percent of the nation's 9th graders are likely to drop out of school before graduation.
- Forty percent of 17-year-olds are considered functionally illiterate at a time when research identifies illiteracy as a primary cause of unemployment among youth.

(Act Together, Inc., 1983).

The nation's news media chronicle the problem of high-risk youth who lack economic self-sufficiency. These juvenile offenders, runaways, homeless children, drug and alcohol abusers, pregnant teens, single parents, and unemployed youth have traditionally been the most difficult and expensive population to serve.

***NIE's 1978 Safe Schools Study found that 3 million teenagers from 14-17 years of age had problems with alcohol. One in four students from grades 10 through 12 drank alcohol at least once a week; six percent of 12th graders drank daily. The OJJDP Delinquency Prevention Research and Development Project found that the proportion of 7th grade students who reported being high on alcohol or drugs at school ranged from 2.2 percent to nearly one in 10 students.*** (1983)

The community, it would seem, must decide where and when to pay for the problem. It can try to keep would-be dropouts and pushouts in school, which is clearly what Dr. Hyman would do, or it can pass the problem and its costs along to the police, the courts, and social agencies. In either case, society pays; and there is increasing evidence that it may cost far less to treat delinquency in the schools than elsewhere.

"We need to develop more effective in-school suspension programs, we need more psychological services, we need to develop effective methods of enforcing discipline codes, and most of all we need to support the development of good alternative schools," Dr. Hyman says.

Effective delinquency prevention calls for strategies for assessing the learning environment and involving the entire school and community. Commitments to improve the quality of education and to prevent delinquency go hand in glove. Existing resources are inadequate, so every effort must be made to involve parents, business leaders, other citizens, local government, and any other available resources. All students must participate in this effort, and none should be isolated. The goal is to encourage students to commit themselves to learning and to achieving excellence; and this means they must be certain that everybody in the community has high expectations of them.

Subsequent chapters discuss the scope of the problem, various approaches for solving it, and the special role of the school in combating delinquency.

# Bibliography


Act Together, Inc. (1983). *Youth at risk/jobs.* Washington, DC: Author.

American Association of School Administrators. (1981). *Reporting: Violence, vandalism, and other incidents in schools.* Arlington, VA: Author.

Boston Safe Schools Commission. (1983). *Making our schools safer for learning.* Boston: Author.

Boyer, E. (1983). *High school: A report on American secondary education.* New York: Harper & Row.

Center for Law and Justice. (1982). *Preventing Delinquency: A Social Development Approach* [Film]. Seattle, WA: Author.

Center for Public Resources. (1982). *Basic skills in the U.S. work force: The contrasting perceptions of business, labor and public education.* New York: Author.

Children's Defense Fund. (1975). *School suspensions: Are they helping children?* Washington, DC: Author.

Coleman, J. S. (1966). *Equality of education opportunity.* Washington, DC: U. S. Government Printing Office.

Coleman, J. S., Hoffer, T., & Kilgore, S. (1982). *High school achievement.* New York: Basic Books.

Cuervo, A. G., and Lees, J. (1983). *Delinquency prevention: An overview for policy development.* Paper prepared for Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention under contract no. J-LEAA 00981.

Cuervo, A. G. (1982). *Schools and delinquency.* Paper submitted to the Coordinating Council on Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention. Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention under contract no. J-LEAA 00981.

De Lone, R., & Long, M. (Eds.). (1983). *What do you know about youth unemployment?* New York: The Edna McConnell Clark Foundation.

Dewey, J. (1915). *The school and society.* Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

DiPrete, T. A. (1981). *Discipline, order and student behavior in American high schools.* Washington, DC: National Center for Education Statistics.

Dunivant, N. (1982). *The relationship between learning disabilities and juvenile delinquency.* Williamsburg, VA: National Center for State Courts.

Education Commission of the States. (1983). *Action for excellence: A comprehensive plan to improve our nation's schools.* Denver, CO: Author.

Foley, E., & McConnaughy, S. B. (1982). *Towards school improvement: Lessons from alternative*

*high schools.* New York: Public Education Association.

Ford Foundation. (1984). *City high schools: A recognition of progress.* New York: Author.

Fox, R. S. (1974). *School climate improvement: A challenge to the school administrator.* Englewood, CO: C. F. Kettering, Ltd.

Gittens, N., & Malakoff, E. H. (Eds.). (1983). *Schools and the law of the handicapped.* Washington, DC: National School Boards Association.

Goodlad, J.I. (1984). *A place called school: Prospects for the future.* New York: McGraw-Hill.

Grant, J., & Capell, F. (1983). *Reducing school crime: A report on the school team approach.* Nicasio, CA: Social Action Research Center.

Hyman, I. A., & Wayson, W. Testimony before the U. S. House of Representatives Subcommittee on Elementary, Secondary and Vocational Education in January 1984.

Jencks, C., Smith, M., Ackland, H., Bane, M. J., Cohen, D., Gintis, H., Heyns, B., & Michelson, S. (1972). *Inequality: A reassessment of the effect of family and schooling in America.* New York: Basic Books.

Katz, M. B. (1975). *Class, bureaucracy and schools: The illusion of educational change in America.* New York: Praeger Publishers.

Lightfoot, S. L. (1978). *Worlds apart: Relationships between families and schools.* New York: Basic Books.

Mizell, M. H. (1979). Designing and implementing effective in-school alternatives to suspension. In A. M. Garibaldi (Ed.), *In-school alternatives to suspension* (pp. 133-150). Washington, DC: National Institute of Education.

National Commission on Excellence in Education. (1983). *A nation at risk: The imperative for educational reform.* Washington, DC: Author.

National School Boards Association. (1984). *A blueprint for educational excellence: A school board member's guide.* Washington, DC: Author.

National Institute of Education. (1978). *Violent schools—safe schools: The safe schools study report to the congress, Vol. I.* Washington, DC: Author.

Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention. (1980). *Delinquency prevention: Theories and strategies.* Washington, DC: Author.

Purkey, S. C., & Smith, M. S. (1983). Effective schools: A review. *Elementary School Journal, 83,* 427-452.

Rutter, M., Maughan, B., Mortimore, P., Ouston, J., & Smith, A. (1979). *Fifteen thousand hours: Secondary schools and their affects on children.* Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

Sarason, S. B. (1971). *The culture of the school and the problem of change.* Boston: Allyn & Bacon, Inc.

Sizer, T. R. (1984). *Horace's compromise: The dilemma of the American high school.* Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company.

Sorenson, G. P. (1982). *The worst kinds of discipline. Update on Law-Related Discipline,* p. 27.

U.S. Department of Justice. (1982). *Sourcebook of criminal justice statistics—1982* .Washington, DC: Author.

United States Senate Committee on the Judiciary. (1977). *Challenge for the third century: Education in a safe environment.* Washington, DC: U. S. Government Printing Office.

Weis, J. (1983). *Evaluation of delinquency prevention research and development project.* Seattle, WA: Center for Law and Justice, University of Washington.

Williams, J. (1979). In-school alternatives to suspension: Why bother? In A. M. Garibaldi (Ed.), *In-school alternatives to suspension* (pp. 163-167). Washington, DC: National Institute of Education.

Working Group on School Violence and Discipline. Memorandum to the Cabinet Council on Human Resources and to the President. Presented to the President in January 1984.

CHAPTER 2

# School-Based Prevention

**In recent months,** a sharp debate has occurred about whether the problems of crime and violence in the schools have increased, decreased, or stabilized since the National Institute of Education's Safe Schools Study in 1978. This prompted Alfred S. Regnery, Administrator of the Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention, to comment to a Congressional subcommittee in 1984, "The issue is not . . . whether the problem is 'better' or 'worse' than in 1978. *Any* violence in school is unacceptable. Since violence *is* still a real problem in many schools, we need to do what we can to help."

The previous chapter provided an overview of how delinquency colors the American education landscape. This chapter focuses on the special role of schools in deterring delinquency and sets forth a rationale for implementing programs that foster an ambience of encouragement and safety within schools. The chapter considers several approaches to school-based delinquency prevention and discusses the major theories of delinquency prevention. The chapter also considers the Hawkins and Weis (1980) Social Development Model and effective schooling research and discusses how the principles underlying both approaches could be incorporated into prevention programs to create order and discipline in school environments. Finally, the chapter addresses the need for different strategies to prevent delinquency in different schools and summarizes research findings to assist policy makers in deciding which strategies to employ.

***"Competency-based, individualized instruction, and small classes don't give me much of a chance to goof off."***

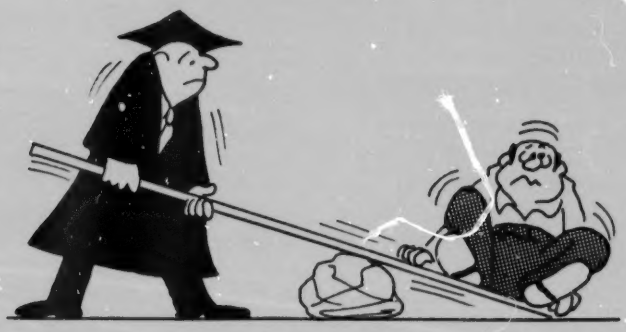
***"School problems eventually become community problems, and frequently it is the other way around. Therefore, the total community including schools, social agencies, the juvenile justice system and parent groups should have some involvement in the solution of school problems."***

Peter F. Flynn, Ph.D., Superintendent
Scranton, Pennsylvania
(1984)

## The School's Special Role

Of all social institutions, the school is best able to identify potential delinquents *before* they become major problems to the community. Studies have demonstrated that school-related variables are among the chief factors influencing both dropout and delinquency for males and females, and that delinquency increases for students who remain in schools under conditions of failure and alienation (Elliott and Voss, 1974; Weis and Hawkins, 1979, 1980).

As Scranton, Pennsylvania, Superintendent Dr. Peter F. Flynn (1984) has observed, "We recognize that the delinquent or disruptive child almost



*The school remains the principal lever . . .*

always begins with a pattern of academic failure. The syndrome includes falling behind in the basic subjects; being embarrassed about being behind; perhaps being retained in a grade or two; being older and looked up to physically by the other students; seeking success in physical power; being increasingly absent from school; becoming more difficult to teach; presenting a problem for teachers who are struggling to find successful methods which might work with this youngster; until the student either acts out or drops out."

In addressing the problem, Albert Shanker (1984), president of the American Federation of Teachers, advocates reaching students before they become "turned off" by education. "In varying degrees and with varying consequences school problems of violence and discipline are primarily caused by students who do not want to participate in the education process schools offer." He suggests using school-based strategies to address such problems: ". . . the best solutions to the school discipline problem will address this phenomenon with *in-school, or at least in-system* solutions that relate to the educational program for difficult students. Some of them will involve educational alternatives; some will involve the establishment of new codes and procedures relating to rewards and punishments; some may involve new mechanisms for asserting teacher authority."

Schools provide a special setting in which officials have a wider range of power for maintaining order than is generally available elsewhere. The courts have required schools to adhere to strict interpretations of student rights, and many school officials bitterly complain of being

***"If the schools do not promote adequate learning and reassurance of progress, the student must come to reject learning—both in the school and later in life."***

Benjamin Bloom
*All Our Children Learning: A Primer for Parents, Teachers, and Other Educators*

### *WHY SCHOOL-BASED PREVENTION*

Four main arguments for school-based programs to prevent juvenile delinquency:

1. Schools are central to the lives of young people. Their standing in school is an important determinant of their standing in the world. A young person's interactions in school may significantly affect how he or she relates with peers, employers, and even family members.
2. An array of troublesome behavior in the schools continually interferes with teaching and learning. Classroom disruption, truancy, vandalism, violence, and poor academic performance are major concerns for communities and states.
3. Next to peer relations, which are affected most directly through the schools, school-related variables are the strongest predictors of delinquent behavior in secondary students (Elliott and Voss, 1974; Hawkins and Weis, 1979). Daily social interactions in school can directly affect a youngster's success, failure, degree of social competence, self-esteem, and behavior.
4. The school is the only formal institution through which society can address the whole range of problems, including substance abuse, youth unemployment, poor peer and family relations, violence, vandalism, and truancy.

(Adapted from Little and Skarrow, 1981).

***"He's in charge of Juvenile Misbehavior."***

emasculated by the courts. But the courts have *not* usurped the power of school leaders to establish and enforce rules. Although courts have required that the rules and punishments for infractions be stated and applied with sufficient clarity to enable students to understand what types of conduct will result in disciplinary action, school officials retain broad authority to determine and enforce disciplinary policies.

# Approaches to Prevention

In exercising their authority to address student behavior problems, school districts have tried several approaches. This book focuses chiefly on primary prevention measures intended to create school environments that reduce the need for special "second-chance" options, such as alternative education programs, which address only the problems of disruptive youth. Effective delinquency prevention methods provide *all* youngsters with opportunities to achieve success in and out of school. Such methods enable students to experience social cooperation and understand its rewards. Primary delinquency prevention theory rewards accomplishment, as a corollary to punishing failures, and replaces negative labels with opportunities to learn and apply skills likely to lead to success.

## Alternative Education Programs

Alternative education programs warrant a brief discussion because they have made important contributions to delinquency prevention and school improvement generally, and have helped document the economic benefits and the effectiveness of school-based programs. Experience with alternative education programs also indicates that any school can apply the characteristics of effective prevention to its own programs.

New York City students enrolled in alternative schools have "expressed real satisfaction about their relationships with teachers; the safe, non-violent and caring atmosphere of their schools; and about education programs, which they perceived as well suited to their needs and interests" (Foley and McConnaughy, 1982). These schools employ a broad range of effective delinquency prevention programs and offer positive school climates and challenging academic programs that are mutually supportive.

The federal government has backed efforts to develop and provide innovative alternative education programs. In 1981, the Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention and the U.S. Department of Labor jointly funded the Alternative Education Program, which involved 17 projects in 10 states and 94 operating sites, most of which were schools. The program's four major objectives were to:

- Develop and implement strategies and techniques to improve policies, practices, and procedures;
- Improve the quality of existing programs, curriculum, staff development, youth and parent participation, and school and district administrative policies and practices;
- Reduce the number of dropouts, truants, suspensions, and expulsions; and

### *YOUTH ADVOCACY AND THE JJDP ACT*

The Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention Act of 1974 (JJDP) resulted from advocacy efforts and stimulated further youth advocacy. The 1977 amendments to the act made a funding priority of activities to improve services to youth affected by the juvenile justice system.

***School policies often label and push out students who most need help.***

### *KEY INGREDIENTS FOR ALTERNATIVE EDUCATION PROGRAMS*

Alternative education programs that enhance delinquency prevention feature seven key elements:

- Individualized instruction and curricula with clear learning goals and individually paced learning programs;
- Clear rewards for individual academic improvement;
- A goal-oriented emphasis on classroom work and learning;
- Small classes;
- Low student-adult ratio in classrooms; and
- Caring and competent administrators.

(Hawkins and Wall, 1980)

- Prepare students for employment or successful participation in post-secondary training or education.

Interim evaluations of the program, by the Johns Hopkins Center for Social Organization of Schools, indicated that 85 percent of the projects resulted in changes. These ranged from simple, procedural adjustments to district-wide adoption of an alternative method of dealing with expulsions and suspensions. Both attendance and academic performance improved, and some projects significantly reduced referrals for disciplinary action.

### The Youth Advocacy Program

In 1979, prior to its involvement with the Alternative Education Program, the Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention (OJJDP) supported an ambitious school-based prevention program, the Youth Advocacy Program (YAP). The program sought to increase the availability and quality of youth services by stimulating reforms of local and state school systems and to increase knowledge about effective youth advocacy. OJJDP specifically encouraged activities to change statutes, regulations, policies, and practices in the juvenile justice system, closely related systems of social services, and education. Projects involved people from various sectors of the community, including youth from the target populations.

Efforts to influence public schooling tended to focus on instituting due process and procedural safeguards, reducing inequitable and improper classification and dispositions of cases, and increasing the quality, quantity, and accessibility of services. Lobbying and legal efforts fared best when they addressed school policies, practices and

***MORAL DEVELOPMENT***

"The main experimental determinants of moral development seem to be amount and variety of social experience, the opportunity to take a number of roles and to encounter other perspectives. . . . Being able to take another's viewpoint, 'to put yourself in his place' is the source of the principled sense of equality and reciprocity . . . The best summary of the situation in everyday language comes from E.M. Forrester, who thought that most of the trouble in the world is due to 'the inability to imagine the innerness of other lives.'"

Lawrence Kohlberg
Cognitive Psychologist
Harvard School of Education 1972

***"Should we get a consultant on these student disruptions?"***

***BUSINESS CAN MAKE A DIFFERENCE***

MEMPHIS—Lisa Shelton had a dream. The 18-year-old senior at Booker T. Washington High School thought she might want to be a computer engineer. One day, in their apartment in a public housing project, she confided this dream to her mother. According to Miss Shelton, her mother responded, "Oh, you can't be no engineer, you know that, girl." And that settled that.

Then, one day at school, Miss Shelton met Jerry Hill. He suggested that she reject such negative talk, that she set her goals to become anything she wanted and not let others make her decisions. Ordinarily, Miss Shelton and her classmates might have dismissed such talk coming from an idealistic teacher unfamiliar with the real world.

But Mr. Hill is not a formal teacher. He is a black computer engineer who worked his way out of the Memphis ghetto into a well-paying job for Federal Express, and he was counseling Miss Shelton and other students at Washington High School as part of a successful educational experiment.

"Schools Try New Ways to Improve Education," *New York Times,* April 14, 1983.

"Federal Express is the best thing that ever happened to Booker T. Washington and I mean that. It has had a more telling effect than any kind of community agency has ever had on the school—period."

Mose Walker, Principal, quoted in the *Memphis Commercial Appeal,* April 26, 1983

procedures concerning discipline, truancy, and dropout prevention. YAP won legislation in four states:

- Georgia mandated in-school suspension rather than deprivation of education as a form of punishment.
- New York prohibited expulsion of truants from the school district until an effort has been made to relocate them.
- Wisconsin modified the state aid formula to provide more incentives for dropout prevention.
- The Florida legislature considered many punitive measures to address truancy and school discipline, but the only proposal that survived concerned sale of drugs and weapons.

The success of these projects underscores the importance of ensuring student rights in effective schools.

# Primary Prevention Theories

Schools have long practiced prevention in the broadest sense. But the primary prevention strategies in this handbook synthesize, for the first time, effective school research, learning theory, and numerous evaluations of successful delinquency prevention programs.

Four major influences on primary delinquency prevention strategy have been the learning, strain, labeling, and control theories. Each recognizes a number of social institutions that influence student development, but only control theory is strictly a theory of prevention.

## Learning Theory

Learning theory—which includes cultural deviance theory, differential association theory, and social learning models—maintains that delinquency is learned through a variety of associational processes. When youngsters associate with delinquent youth, chances increase that they will accept the behavior standards of the deviant peer group. Because schools provide many opportunities for youngsters to form associations, prevention strategies based on learning theory emphasize ways to reduce opportunities for associating with delinquent youth and to reward traditional values (Miller, 1958; Sutherland and Cressy, 1974).

## Strain Theory

Strain theory holds that delinquency results from an individual's inability to adapt to the frustration inherent in social institutions. School strain is especially evident when goals and objectives are structured in such a way that only a limited number of students can legitimately attain them. Youngsters who have no legitimate opportunities for achieving socially acceptable goals may turn to illegitimate values and ways, such as criminal behavior. Prevention strategies attempt to reduce strain by giving all students opportunities and rewards for success (Cohen, 1955).

## Labeling Theory

Labeling theory describes how negative descriptions can affect a youth's behavior. Once behavior is defined as deviant, the youth adapts to the label. If a student is labeled a "slow learner," he or she may maintain lower expectations for academic progress than other classmates. Labeling creates self-fulfilling prophecies, because students tend to view labels as permanent. Delinquency prevention strategies based on this theory aim to minimize labels in order to encourage commitment to improved achievement (Erickson, 1964).

### *"SOUL MURDER"*

"We have known for some time that 'closed' authoritarian environments, such as are characteristic of many schools and classrooms, condemn learners to continuing criticism, sarcasm, discouragement, and failure, so that self confidence, aspiration (for anything but escape), and a healthy self concept are destroyed. Whitehead called this kind of process 'soul murder.' Learners condemned to such relentless failure learn only that they cannot learn, and their anger and distress in the face of this is frequently vented against the system and the society that has inflicted this inhuman punishment on them. We also know how to identify teachers who inflict such environments on their pupils. Yet we continue to sentence pupils to such teachers for a year at a time, often in spite of protests both from pupils and parents."

Eugene Howard
Colorado Department of Education

## Control Theory

Control theory maintains that people conform to traditional norms because of their bonds with home and school. As long as these ties are strong, people usually follow rules of acceptable behavior. Individuals learn self-discipline, which allows them to relate to the people and activities they value.

The bonding fostered by control theory results in:

- Commitment to rewarding experiences;
- Attachment to established institutions;
- Involvement in socially constructive activities; and
- Belief in the value of conforming behavior.

Children form their first bonds with parents and other significant family members. Later, they form attachments to other role models, such as ministers, community leaders, managers, or supervisors. In school, they bond with peers, teachers, and staff (Hirschi, 1969; Hindelang, 1973).

A youngster's attachment to parents usually leads to commitment in the values and principles communicated through the education system and eventually to specific school rules and conventions. School experiences also influence how the student views the school and other people at school. When those experiences are positive, the student is most likely to accept and abide by school and community codes of conduct.

*MOTIVATING ADOLESCENTS*

***"The preoccupying motives for most American adolescents revolve around resolving uncertainty over sexual adequacy, interpersonal power, autonomy of belief and action, and acceptability to peers. The urgency of these questions denotes the weaker desires to acquire competence in mathematics, history, or English composition. Hence the school halls exude combinations of apathy and hostility. This mood is not a recent phenomenon."***

Jerome Kagan
"A Conception of Early Adolescence"
*Daedalus*, 1971.

***"Mr. Jones, about your strategy for labeling slow learners. . . ."***

## Current Thinking on Delinquency Prevention

Although bonding to traditional institutions and beliefs helps insulate young people from deviant peer influences, schools have regularly inhibited social bonding by labeling students, shunting them into tracks, separating them from their positive peers, or isolating them from the school itself.

The new prevention strategies aim to eliminate practices that alienate young people. The goal is to change the way schooling is organized. Partnership programs that expose young people to the work world for example, can provide role models to strengthen students' beliefs that school experiences are worthwhile. Delinquency prevention programs also improve the image students have of local law enforcement and juvenile justice agencies.

School-based delinquency prevention programs encourage school staff to work cooperatively with community resources to reinforce conventional behavior patterns. This makes students more likely to continue behaving positively with other individuals and groups. Peer group associations are especially important because they most often originate in school. Schools can reward

***"What the social development approach would suggest is that young people are more susceptible to the influence of their peers when the opportunities for involvement have not been there in family and school. When they have not experienced success in school or in the family, that would bond them to the activities that are expected in those environments. And then they may look elsewhere to become successful. They may find themselves pulled into activities with delinquent peers in order to demonstrate their own competence as individuals in the world."***

David Hawkins
*Preventing Delinquency* (film, 1982)

participation in positive peer groups by providing an array of socially meaningful experiences. School leaders must develop resources for actively drawing students from increasingly diverse ethnic and cultural backgrounds into the learning process and extracurricular activities. Leaders must also maximize positive peer pressure to support school goals and objectives. (See Part II, Student Involvement, for strategies that can assist schools in designing programs for that purpose.)

***"Do you realize we are wholly-owned subsidiaries of this school?"***

### The Social Development Model

Public elementary, intermediate, and secondary schools have been testing and implementing several promising delinquency prevention strategies that integrate elements of bonding into the process of social development. Based on the Hawkins and Weis Social Development Model (1980), the strategies stress attachment to parents and school as well as a belief in, and a commitment to, the conventions of social order and the law. Joseph Weis and David Hawkins of the National Center for the Assessment of Delinquent Behavior and its Prevention (NCADBIP) in Seattle, are demonstrating through extensive field research that students' attachment to school and commitment to education increase with opportunities for meaningful involvement in school, consistent expectations in the school environment, and development of academic and social skills. The model illustrates how students' perspectives about themselves and others can improve as they participate in school and school-sponsored community activities.

***"When we treat man as he is, we make him worse than he is. When we treat him as if he already were what he potentially could be, we make him what he should be."***

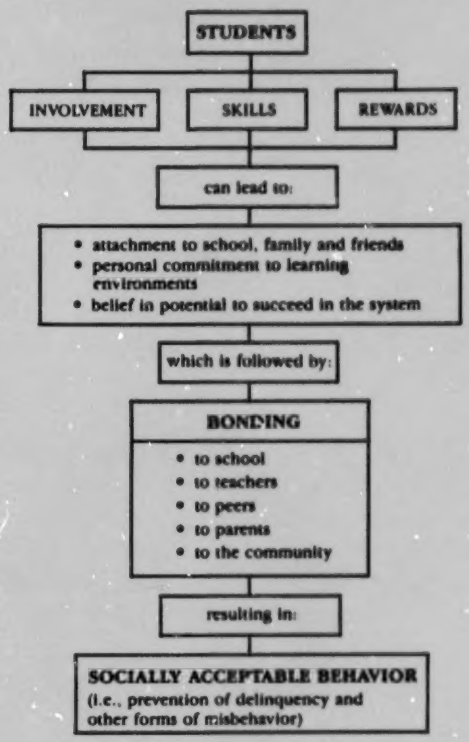
Goethe

The Social Development Model proposes that if the primary units of socialization (families, schools, peers, and community) are to influence youth away from delinquent activity, youth must have the opportunity to be involved in conventional activities, have the skills necessary to be involved successfully, and those with whom the youth interact must consistently reward desired behaviors. (See Figure 1.)

The cumulative effects of experiences at school, with families and peers, and in the community determine whether a young person will develop the necessary bond to society. When their experiences lead to the development of a social bond of attachment, commitment, and belief, young people are more likely to become positive, contributing members of their schools, families, and communities.

Figure 1

***SOCIAL DEVELOPMENT MODEL OF DELINQUENCY PREVENTION***




(Hawkins and Weis, 1981)

*"I guess it's supposed to cure his truancy."*

# Preventing Delinquency Through Social Development

School leaders promote social development by addressing major characteristics of school organization ranging from curriculum, instruction, and grouping to such fundamental elements of school governance as establishing policies for discipline that are consistent with principles of effective schooling. The following changes have demonstrated promise for reducing violence, vandalism, academic failure, and assaults on teachers.

***"Peer influence is one of the best methods of organizing and utilizing the resources of students and their ability to help other students become more successful in the school setting."***

Sonya Vassos, Counselor
Franklin Square, New York

The Social Development Model characterizes the influences of various institutions in a child's life as dynamic. As the child grows, the influences of institutions that play major roles in his or her life shift and change. According to Weis and Hawkins (1981), the family dominates until the child begins school. School and peer groups then compete for attachment. Employment is an especially strong socializing force for youth whose school experiences are unrewarding, and the community setting becomes increasingly influential for older youth.

In order for delinquency prevention strategies to be effective, they must be designed and applied according to the young person's stage of development. Strategies appropriate at one stage may be inappropriate and ineffective at another stage. Most importantly, if the characteristics of the school environment are closely attuned to the bonding process, then youth can be motivated and reinforced more effectively to participate in conventional activities and not deviant actions. The Social Development Model emphasizes that the structures of school experiences must reinforce the bonding process by:

- Increasing opportunities for involvement in a greater number of conforming tasks;
- Maximizing the attainment of the necessary skills to participate successfully in those tasks; and
- Providing rewards and sanctions that are clear and consistent.

(Hawkins and Weis, 1980).

## Changing Instruction Methods

Students who experience academic success are more likely to become committed to educational goals and are more likely to develop attachments to teachers, positive peers, and other positive role models. The most effective instructional practices have specific, clear objectives and allow students to proceed according to their own ability level. Mastery learning methods with criterion-reference evaluations allow students to receive an incremental reward as they master each learning task. This clearly ties rewards to performing and to attaining learning objectives (Bloom, 1976; Hunter, 1982).

Mastery of learning tasks, student motivation, positive student attitudes towards teachers and school, and student self-esteem are greater when students learn in cooperative classroom situations rather than in competitive or individualistic ones. When students perform learning tasks in groups, rewards depend on the quality and quantity of group efforts. Peer pressure can effectively motivate each student to contribute to his or her team's successful performance. Team learning techniques have been shown to increase academic achievement significantly more than other instructional methods. Cooperative learning activities also encourage friendships across status or group lines in a heterogeneous student body. Besides inspiring appreciation for differences, these learning methods greatly enhance self-esteem, because students who work together effectively on structured tasks can

motivate and directly reinforce one another (Slavin 1979; Johnson and Johnson, 1981).

If students are to learn to work together effectively, they need training in basic cooperative skills, such as communication, problem solving, leadership, and negotiation. Mastering such skills can significantly reduce delinquency-related problems, such as substance abuse and unemployment.

These methods of instruction are not intended to burden teachers and school administrators with additional work. Rather than working harder, school personnel will be working more effectively if they use these tools to manage the human factors in the classroom and maximize learning.

### Involving Students in Decisions

Students who view themselves as having a stake in the school's goals and objectives are more motivated and more likely to succeed. By increasing the student role in establishing discipline codes and setting education priorities, school leaders can increase students' attachment and commitment to the rules and priorities. Decision-making experience also encourages students to develop skills and attitudes important to future community involvement. According to the Social Development Model, participation in activities and interactions with others is "the foundation upon which the elements of the social bond, i.e., attachment, commitment and belief, are generated, reinforced, and maintained" (Weis, et al., 1981).

In order for students to interact successfully with peer, family, and other adults, they must have the skills to do so in a meaningful and rewarding way. The school curriculum should offer all students training in basic interpersonal skills, such as communication, decision making, conflict resolution, and problem solving.

A number of school-based programs promote opportunities for learning interpersonal and decision-making skills. Examples include: peer-relation projects, various forms of student courts, school anti-vandalism projects, and student

***"We know that the grading and ranking systems used in most schools are harmful and irrational. We know that success motivates and that a pupil's self-image is a vital factor in motivating him or her to learn. Yet we continue to use grading and ranking systems which virtually insure us that half our pupils will perceive of themselves as being below average and that thousands of the nation's children will see themselves as failures by the age of ten."***

Eugene Howard
Colorado Department of Education

***EFFECTS OF COOPERATIVE LEARNING***

"My involvement in the School Improvement Project this past year has been the highlight of my teaching career. . . . I found myself more and more aware of the need to 'hook' the lesson into the students' own experiences. As I did this they expended less energy on 'why should I do this' and more on the objectives of the lesson. . . . Everything in the lesson became more focused. The lessons and the tests reflected learning objectives and the result in higher test scores was remarkable. I had very few failures.

"Student Team Learning was the most exciting of all. I saw students helping others with whom they ordinarily would not have any contact. When left on their own, many students tend to form ability and racial groups. To see students of all races and abilities helping each other was worth the whole project."

Louise Locke, Instructional Leader
Hamilton Middle School
Seattle, Washington (1983)
OJJDP School Enhancement Project

***"Billy Watson has been hitting me again. I want to change my peer group."***

activity boards. Engaging students in setting school rules and learning objectives can encourage them to become partners in the learning process. (See Part II for more information about such programs.)

Schools with student-involvement projects have experienced a decrease in the incidence of troublesome behavior. At trouble ridden Cleveland High School in Seattle, Howard (1978) reported a decrease in student absenteeism from 35 percent to 5.6 percent; office referrals dropped by 50 percent. Both the requests for the transfers and the number of reported fights dropped dramatically. The principal attributed the changes to a marked increase in student and parent involvement both in setting school rules and in defining rewards for meritorious behavior and punishments for infractions.

### Making Curricula More Relevant

Community-based, experiential education programs have been implemented sporadically, but more schools need to broaden their curricula and make them more relevant to work and expanding vocational opportunities. This can be accomplished by expanding the definition of learning tasks and by encouraging students, teachers, and community members to work as partners in learning. Along with the classroom teacher, a broad cross section of significant others, mentors and role models in the community, need to support and reinforce the learning process. By emphasizing participation, exploration, and cooperation, the school community can make learning challenging and engaging. By reinforcing academic achievement with practical work experience, schools can greatly increase the opportunities for all youth to become contributing members of their communities.

The successful use of structured educational work experiences for many youngsters alienated from traditional school settings illustrates this point. A common feature of an exemplary work experience program is a caring, available adult supervisor who provides instruction, guidance, and informal counseling to individual youths. Students often become attached to these adult role models, out of respect for experience and accomplishments in a world the students find far more attractive and meaningful than the world of school.

### Providing Law-Related Education

Law-Related Education (LRE) is another curricular reform that has demonstrated promise in preventing delinquency by fostering social responsibility, personal commitment for the public good, and effective participation in the social order. The Office of Education (1979) defined LRE as "those organized learning experiences that provide students and educators with opportunities to develop the knowledge and understanding, skills, attitudes, and appreciations necessary to respond effectively to the law and legal issues in our complex and changing society."

Although diverse in approach, LRE programs and materials share certain common learning objectives including:

- Developing legal survival skills and imparting practical legal information;
- Improving thinking and decision-making skills; and
- Enhancing students' understanding of and commitment to justice.

The emphasis is not on memorizing and regurgitating facts but rather on prescriptive questioning. In addition to acquiring practical information and skills, students participate in a continuing inquiry into what laws and public policies are and what they should be. Students must participate actively in exploring the various sides of controversial issues. Using role-playing exercises, simulated negotiations, mock trials, mock legislative assemblies, and various community-based internships, LRE programs provide students with the opportunity to practice, develop, and refine the skills and knowledge for productive citizenship. This experiential learning can encourage and prepare them to take an active and responsible role in the governing affairs of their communities.

Evaluation of the Department of Education's and the National Institute of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention's law-related education programs indicates that LRE can affect factors directly related to delinquency and can perform a preventive function (Hunter and Turner, 1981). Evaluators found that LRE can reduce delinquency under certain conditions, for instance, when:

- The school administrator participates in the instructional process;

- There is a structure created to provide professional peer support for the LRE teacher;
- Community members and law students are adequately prepared prior to instructing LRE classes;
- Teaching strategies foster true interaction and cooperation among students, such as occurs with team learning and cooperative learning techniques;
- Students receive a sufficient quantity of instruction, generally a minimum of one semester; and
- Presentations of case materials are judiciously selected.

Many school districts have effectively integrated LRE into their curricula. The process requires little additional equipment, rescheduling of classes, or general reorganization of curricula. An important consideration, however, is that schools must practice what they teach. It would be difficult, and could cause more harm than good, to teach constitutional principles of due process and freedom of expression in schools with rigid, authoritarian, and repressive rule-making and enforcement structures. By integrating LRE into the educational process, schools can enable youth to become contributing members of their schools and their communities. (See Part II for more information about strategies involving LRE.)

***"School wouldn't be so bad if you got time off for good behavior."***

***"If we have learned anything over the years it is that it is almost impossible to impose standards. All groups that are going to be affected by the standards must 'buy into them."***

California School Board Association
Task Force Report on Student Violence and Vandalism (1980)

### Coordinating Responses of School, Community, and Family

Consistency in parents' and teachers' educational expectations, communications, and problem-solving behavior can enhance students' academic achievement and commitment to the educational system. Schools and families can increase the consistency with which they respond to young people by promoting:

- Home-based reinforcement of school behavior;
- Community centers in the schools that provide classes for all residents and opportunities for community members and parents to become actively involved in the schools; and
- Links between schools and community organizations and businesses through programs, such as the Adopt-A-School Partnership, and through parent and community participation in school councils.

## Effective Schooling

Many of the strategies for preventing delinquency overlap with principles of effective schooling. The late Ronald Edmonds, one of its most well-known proponents, told a 1980 meeting of school leaders in Washington, D.C.:

"All children are educable, and the degree to which their educability is realized is *primarily determined* by the characteristics of the school to which they go. The school is powerful to deliver basic instruction to children. Regardless of how the family behaves, it is incumbent on the school, as an institution, to get the basic job done."

In his studies, Edmonds (1979) determined that schools are effective when these characteristics are present:

- Strong instructional leadership;
- High expectations for achievement for *all* students;
- An orderly and positive climate supporting learning;

- Carefully developed curricula appropriate to student needs; and
- Regular monitoring of student academic progress.

### Instructional Leadership

Strong leadership requires effective communication between school leaders and teachers, resulting in instruction based on knowledge about how children learn and about what conditions enhance learning. Researchers suggest school leaders need to improve the organization and distribution of school resources (Weber, 1971), to emphasize achievement, and to evaluate basic instructional objectives (Brookover and Lezotte, 1979). Leaders of effective schools generally are able to communicate a clear sense of purpose or mission.

### High Expectations

The degree to which expectations for student achievement are met depends on the way administrators and teachers communicate with students. Studies of student attitudes toward learning confirm that those who are most successful in completing their schoolwork are those who feel that the school gives them opportunities to succeed (Brookover, 1979; Rutter, et al., 1979).

School leaders, teachers, and support staff have successfully encouraged academic achievement by:

- Developing beliefs that all students can master basic learning objectives;
- Establishing clear and high expectations of educational achievement; and
- Requiring every student to improve, regardless of previous low levels of academic performance.

***"Schools with positive climates are people-centered. The rules, procedures, policies, and regulations of such schools serve human needs. Conversely, schools with negative climates are characterized as being institution-centered rather than people-centered. The mission of institution-centered schools is basically to tell people what to do."***

Eugene Howard
Colorado Department of Education

### Orderly And Positive Climate

A safe and comfortable environment is essential if students are to perceive high expectations accurately and come to share them. In promoting schoolwide change, improvement efforts that focus on systematically involving the entire school community and, indeed, the community at large, help create such a climate. As Purkey and Smith (1982) point out, this broad-based model for change "assumes that consensus among the staff of a school is more powerful than overt control, without ignoring the need for leadership. Indeed, consensus emerges as a key factor in the model. . . . Building consensus around specified norms and goals becomes the focus of any school improvement strategy."

***Students must feel that schools give them opportunities to succeed.***

***ON NOT KEEPING STILL***

***"Early adolescence is an age for laxing and for blazing. Students want to be able to relax a body which is suddenly not under their control, to try it out in what seems to us awkward positions but which to them express and so mollify its awkwardness. Desks are particularly unsuited to them: they like to be on floors, at tables or in quirky cubby-holes. They also need, need urgently, active physical movement, for their bodies' psycho-sexual energy and glandular changes make them restless. They need to be able to move around in a classroom, they need to tackle resistant materials in shop, they also need practice in coordinating physical movement, so that their bodies once again become agents of their wills."***

Charity James
Middle School Task Force
National Association of Independent Schools (1975)

## Appropriate Curricula

Carefully developed curricula appropriate to student needs require knowledge about what students actually need to learn. All the major national commissions and study panels investigating the quality of the nation's schools emphasize the need for critical thinking skills. Edmonds noted the importance of socialization, creativity, and independent thinking--that is, "taking the student to his fullest intellectual potential."

Edmonds observed that schools generally either have no articulated focus or mission, or they have one that is poorly communicated. But to be effective, schools need to organize curricula to enable students to function productively within their goals and expectations.

***"When my parents see this thing there's going to be a 'kid at risk'."***

## Monitoring

Regular monitoring of student academic progress requires more than careful record-keeping, a tedious responsibility in itself. It also requires the comparison of records with expectations. Given the many demands upon teachers, schoolwide staff commitment to this characteristic typically requires considerable planning, since the allocation of time is the most critical priority of any institution.

Monitoring also entails giving students immediate feedback on performance and adjusting instruction to a pace that is both challenging and productive—neither too comfortable nor too frustrating. Motivation increases when the students believe that the school staff is committed to helping them make academic progress.

## Evaluating Effective Schooling

Theory, common sense, research projects, surveys, and case studies have generated excitement about the possibility of ensuring that *all* schools have characteristics that promote academic achievement for *all* students. Research conclusions, however, are tentative and suggest cautious optimism rather than certainties about effective schooling. There are four major limitations: (1) research has focused primarily on elementary schools; (2) there are few longitudinal studies; (3) data are aggregated at the school level, blurring information about specific subgroups of students; and (4) criteria of school effectiveness and school success has been subjective (Purkey and Smith, 1982). (An effective school serving low-income and minority students was not held to the same standard as one serving middle-class suburban students.)

The Delinquency Prevention Research and Development Project (OJJDP, School Enhancement Project, 1983) avoided these limitations by conducting research at all levels of schooling during a period of three years. The research focused on specific subgroups, as well as on large groups of students, and targeted schools employing rigorous experimental controls. (See Part II for many of the promising strategies developed through the OJJDP project.)

It is not possible to infer from the research on effective schooling that schools can improve significantly simply by replicating the suggested characteristics. Who would challenge the claim that an effective school must have a carefully developed curriculum appropriate to the needs of students? Or an orderly and positive climate that supports learning? Nevertheless, many schools lack such curricula and have not developed climates that are both orderly and positive. When combined with knowledge about organizational change and insights from the considerable studies of school reform in the 1960s and 1970s, research data strongly suggest that systematic school improvement is feasible (Purkey and Smith, 1982).

***"Not enough can be said about the benefits of the School Improvement Project to my teaching. . . . This program has provided me an opportunity as a team teacher to learn creative techniques and materials. It has helped me to enrich my lessons using alternative approaches. I sense aliveness, caring, respect, and high expectations. The team concept has helped me to avoid doing for students what they can do for themselves in groups."***

Helen Bottomly, Instructional Leader
McClure Middle School
Seattle, Washington (1983)
OJJDP School Enhancement Project

# Applying Research to School Improvement

Three types of school improvement programs currently use research about effective schools as a basis for organizational change:

- Programs organized and administered within schools and school districts;
- Programs administered by state education agencies, which provide incentives and technical assistance to local schools and districts; and
- Programs of research, development, and technical assistance—usually located in a university.

### Local District Programs

Urban school districts around the country are beginning to use characteristics identified in school effectiveness studies to design and implement school improvement programs. All of them adapt the recommended approaches to meet local needs. Some school districts invite schools to participate voluntarily, while others require participation. Some school leaders initiate school improvement efforts, while outsiders start other programs. (See Part II for examples of such programs.)

### State-Administered Programs

Several state departments of education have encouraged school improvement programs. They have used films, presentations, newsletters, conferences, and related methods to inform school officials about school improvement. States have funded school improvement programs, conducted training, and provided continuing technical assistance to school leaders upon request. The Colorado Department of Education has been a leader in such efforts.

The Connecticut Department of Education administers a formal program. Its staff began by monitoring school improvement programs in New York City to learn how such programs are

***"Ms. Maloy, I respect you as a person and a teacher. Now, if you could ease up on those homework assignments. . . . "***

implemented and evaluated. The School Improvement Office now offers a variety of services to Connecticut school districts that want to establish school improvement programs. Upon designing a program, a district may request technical assistance, including use of state personnel to conduct a needs assessment, or to teach school leaders, teachers, and staff the fundamentals of good program design and implementation.

### University-Based Programs

Some universities are also offering technical assistance and information services to help local schools design and implement programs. Kent State University (Ohio), for example, assists districts in conducting desegregation programs. Michigan State University and the University of Michigan have assisted more than 100 principals, teachers, and central administrators from the state's 21 largest school districts in the design of local improvement programs that reflect findings from research on effective schools.

## Characteristics of Schools with Positive Discipline

In 1979, the Phi Delta Kappa Commission on Discipline investigated 19 schools with exemplary disciplinary policies and practices. The intent was to assist schools in understanding what can be done to improve student conduct and school climate. The study concluded that exemplary schools:

- Exhibit strong leadership by the principal;
- Involve faculty and students in problem solving;
- View the school as a place to experience success;
- Focus on causes rather than symptoms of problems; and
- Emphasize positive behavior and preventive measures.

### Leadership

The effectiveness of school discipline depends largely on the school leadership. The principal is particularly crucial because he or she is the one to whom teachers look for support and direction when confronting disciplinary problems.

The principals in the Phi Delta Kappa Study exhibited a "tender strength," which enabled them to influence staff and students and make their positions clear without being dictatorial. In one school, the principal met with each member of the faculty and staff and asked what he or she thought needed changing. He "refused to get involved in 'old stories' and bitter battles from the past. . . . His

***". . . and besides the faculty meeting, principal's meeting, six requests for educational conferences, the overview on buildings and grounds—here are seventy-two Happy Valentine cards from the afternoon kindergarten at Neil Armstrong School."***

leadership began subtly, listening for direction from the collective body, working behind the scenes to create alliances and carefully, but willingly, delegating responsibility to others." The principal's leadership style prompted one faculty member to comment "He is the best listener. . . . I can feel his support and confidence."

Students also need reassurance that principals care about individual growth and development. They need to know that principals, as well as other administrators, will pay attention to all students, not only to those who break the rules. Perhaps more importantly, students need to feel that these adults care about student safety and security and are doing everything possible to make schools safe.

### Involvement

Involving faculty members and students in problem solving fosters a positive school climate. Cooperation helps teachers and administrators understand student concerns and develop meaningful ways to involve students in school leadership. Everyone in school should have the opportunity to cooperate in solving school and classroom problems.

Joint problem solving is also useful in developing student codes of conduct. At one high school, parents, teachers, students, and school administrators collectively developed a disciplinary code, which was presented in workshops to parents and students. A committee of teachers, parents, students, and administrators then updated the code and monitored its implementation.

Involving students in the planning of disciplinary standards and practices enhances their understanding of the policy-making process as well as encourages them to take responsibility for an orderly environment. Students develop close ties with school officials, teachers, and support staff and tend to take a more active role in preventing disciplinary problems within the school. As one school in the Phi Delta Kappa Commission study reports, this type of cooperative involvement solved a graffiti problem. With an art teacher's guidance, students painted murals on the walls of the school halls to discourage defacement. As other schools have found, student-made murals are almost never violated. The project not only beautified the school—it enhanced student pride.

### Success

The sense of success that students, teachers, and school officials derive from working together can and should be a fundamental component of school life. Teachers and students need success to function effectively.

Schools that offer opportunities for all students to experience academic success tend to have fewer disciplinary problems. Many schools have provided such opportunities by emphasizing competence and self-discipline in a number of extracurricular, as well as academic areas. This approach helps elementary school students develop skills that prepare them to succeed at more advanced levels. Some schools have found that training students in communication skills, community development, goal setting, interpersonal cooperation, problem solving, and decision making fosters student leadership. Periodic workshops and student leadership conference days are particularly useful methods of teaching leadership skills.

***"When a person in Joan of Arc's position tells a man he is brave, he believes it; and believing is enough; in fact, to believe yourself is to be brave; it is the one only essential thing."***

Mark Twain

### Causes

Schools with exemplary disciplinary practices tend to view specific misbehavior as symptoms of other problems rather than isolated behavior that calls for disciplinary action. For example, teachers and administrators in such schools understand that student sarcasm may be the result of frustration; that a student may fail to complete an assignment if it seems irrelevant or inappropriate; and that fighting may be the result of overcrowded conditions.

***"The greatest tribute a student can offer me at the completion of a course is to state that 'I did not need you in order to earn the grade I got.' For those who have this experience, the albatross of dependence, and correspondingly blame, is lost forever.***

***"We as instructors have total responsibility for the results produced in our educational domain. We must constantly be willing to create a context that produces empowered students, fully capable to think and do for themselves. Each of our succeeding educational experiences must be the starting point for elevating the quality of the results, recognizing that there is really no upper limit."***

Dr. William Guillory
University of Utah

### *A PARENT REFLECTS*

"It's a strange thing. There's so many different ways that a child can be disciplined. The worst child can be disciplined. It depends on how a person goes about trying to discipline that child. I have chaperoned . . . a lot of kids, and a lot of big, bad fellows . . . and you could look at them and tell they were bad. But I would push those fellows, and the things that I would say, there wasn't a one disobeyed what I said."

Mrs. Mullen described her concept of an effective urban school, one that would prevent the alienation and delinquent behavior that she had seen:

"I would want willing and active teachers who would try to understand how they live and grow. I would like to have it so that the parents would be free to make suggestions about things that they think the children should have that we hadn't thought of. We would have parents and teachers meetings so parents could speak their own opinions about things.

"I can't remember that we meet with no teachers. . . . We just go and talk about their grades and things. I think we should have special time, special day set aside with all the teachers and parents and the principal and everybody to get together, and not only discuss one child, but discuss education as a whole."

(Rosenthal, 1976).

***Teachers and school leaders in schools with positive disciplinary practices seek out the underlying causes of student misbehavior.***

Whatever the problems, teachers and school leaders in schools with positive disciplinary practices seek out the underlying causes of student misbehavior. At the same time, they attempt to promote activities and learning experiences to prevent or reduce problems. For example, if leaders determine that extensive vandalism in a school is linked to a lack of student involvement, they may adopt procedures to clarify rules and the consequences for violating them. Or if student disrespect for teachers stems from the perspective that teachers are more concerned about self-preservation than about the needs of students, schools may stress faculty development and more administrative supervision of classroom interactions.

Leaders in schools with good discipline are careful not to categorize behavior problems simplistically as resulting from racial, cultural, or peer group factors. Instead, they seek ways to create a school climate that affords teachers, staff, school administrators, and students opportunities to work together to identify and resolve the causes of problems.

**Rewards**

Schools with good discipline make every effort to encourage and reward positive behaviors. Rules and procedures are clearly communicated, understood, and enforced. Reasonable punishment is used as a last resort.

Improvements occur when teachers know how to communicate with difficult students. Some of the techniques used in the study included comforting and reassuring students, using more symbolic rewards, and developing contracts with students concerning their behavior. Researchers also found that successful teachers used punishment less and provided more support and encouragement than less skilled teachers.

The highest rated teachers encouraged a wide range of activities to enhance the self-perceptions of students, such as special awards, honor days, positive messages to parents, and recognition of students for individual and collective accomplishments. In the classroom, these teachers used verbal praise and other positive reinforcement strategies to help students maintain a positive image of themselves. One school in Washington State reported sending notes home to parents entitled "Your Child was Sent to the Principal Today" as a means of describing a student's *good* behavior in school. These measures, which promote positive behavior, are critical in preventing misbehavior and delinquency.

***GOOD SCHOOLS FUNCTION BETTER THAN BAD SCHOOLS***

About four of every five disruptive incidents may be traceable to some disfunction in the way we run schools, train staff members, or organize schools. Relieving those disfunctions is essential to creating well disciplined schools and teaching responsible behavior among both staff and teachers. . . . Good schools function differently and better than bad schools in regard to eight organizational factors:

- They teach people in the school to work together to solve problems.
- They spread decision-making authority and reduce status differences among both staff and students.
- They find ways to make all students feel they belong in school and that it is theirs.
- Though not relying solely upon rules and disciplinary procedures for order, they do develop rules and procedures for promoting self-discipline.
- They improve curriculum and instruction in order to reach, interest and challenge more students.
- They deal with personal problems affecting staff and students' behavior.
- They seek stronger school and home cooperation.
- They ensure the schools and organizational structures reinforce all of these other practices.

(Wayson, 1984).

# Different Strategies for Different Schools

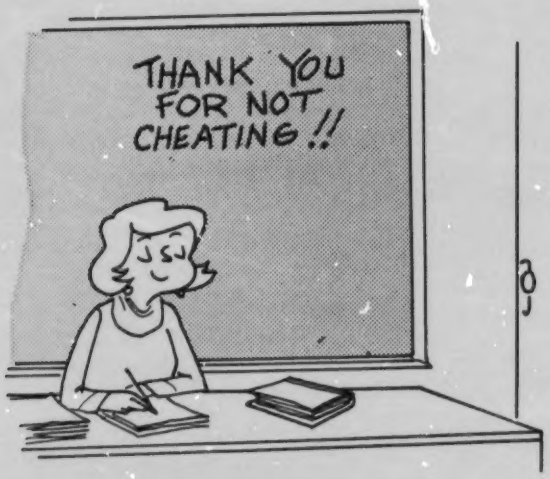
There is no single best approach to reducing or preventing school crime—no remedy that applies to every situation. But researchers are continuing to sort through the experiences of schools to identify dynamic strategies.

In April 1983, staff at the Social Action Research Center in Nacisio, California, consolidated several years of analysis, reflection, and syntheses of data concerning the types of programs and approaches that appeared to be most successful in reducing crime and disruption in schools. The Center's report stresses that approaches to local problem solving must consider the diversity of schools, target populations, program options, and strategies (Grant and Capell, 1983).

The researchers studied the effect of the School Team Approach, a method of mobilizing local resources to address local problems, which was developed by the Alcohol and Drug Abuse Education Program (U.S. Department of Education), and was adapted to address school crime and disruption in 70 high schools, 71 middle schools, and 32 elementary schools nationwide over a three-year period. (See Part II for a description of this strategy.)

The study makes several suggestions:

- The need for order is basic. Without order, no other positive changes are possible. Teams that concentrate on increasing school security have been able to reduce classroom disruption, attacks against teachers and the school, and theft. This approach does not work in high schools, however, where attacks and disruption are less of a problem.




- People are more likely to change by working together on problems they consider to be important than by being encouraged to feel better about themselves, understand themselves, or learn how to get along better with each other. Improved communication among adversary groups—joint problem-solving rather than morale-building—also is helpful.
- Active parent involvement also helps to reduce crime.

Chapter 3 of this guide examines the planning of school-based delinquency prevention and expands upon the central conclusion of the work by the Social Action Research Center. In planning programs to address school crime and prevent delinquency, it is important to consider whether the school is an elementary school, a middle or junior high school, or a high school:

- Elementary school students depend primarily upon adults. Therefore, opportunities to strengthen relationships with adults build attachments to the school environment. Schools respond to efforts to invite parents' participation in school affairs, including decision making, particularly in support of improved security, discipline, and consistent and fair enforcement of rules.

The National School Public Relations Association, recommends that student codes should contain at least three sections:

- Student rights;
- Rules of conduct and sanctions for violations; and
- Regulations for procedural due process in matters involving suspension, transfer, and expulsion.

***But researchers are continuing to sort through the experience of schools to identify dynamic strategies.***

- Middle school or junior high school students display the stresses of rapid transition from childhood to adulthood—stresses that increased stimulation and complexity may aggravate. Therefore, programs that require students to assume unfamiliar roles, such as in human relations training, can be counterproductive. On the other hand, emphasis on school security, school wide focus on problems of vandalism and drug use, and active parental presence demonstrate that members of the school community are joining forces to control disorder.
- High school students resist any effort to control behavior, but they respond to programs that encourage their growth toward independence from adults. They seek opportunities to cope with the world outside the school, to participate in decisions about the school itself, and to demonstrate that they matter to adults. High school students generally benefit from and contribute to efforts to enhance communication among factions in the school.

# Bibliography


Act Together, Inc. (1983). *Youth at risk/jobs.* Washington, DC: Author.

Armor, D., Conry-Oseguera, P., Cox, M., King, N., McDonnell, L., Pascal, A., Pauly, E., & Zellman, G. (1976). ***Analysis of the school preferred reading program in selected Los Angeles minority schools.*** Santa Monica, CA: Rand Corporation.

Berman, P., & McLaughlin, W. (1978). ***Federal programs educational change, Vol. VII: Factors affecting implementation and continuation.*** Santa Monica, CA: Rand Corporation.

Bloom, B. S. (1976). ***Human characteristics and school learning.*** New York: McGraw-Hill.

Brookover, W. B., & Lezotte, L. W. (1979). ***Changes in school characteristics coincident with changes in student achievement.*** East Lansing, MI: Institute for Research on Teaching, Michigan State University.

Brookover, W. B., Beady, C., Flood, P., Schweitzer, J., & Wisenbaker, J. (1979). ***School social systems and student achievement: Schools can make a difference.*** New York: Praeger Publishers.

Cohen, A. K. (1955). ***Delinquent boys.*** New York: Free Press.

Cuervo, A. G., and Lees, J. (1983) ***Delinquency prevention: An overview for policy development.*** Paper prepared for Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention under contract no. J-LEAA 00981.

Cuervo, A. G. (1982). ***Schools and delinquency.*** Paper submitted to the Coordinating Council on Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention. Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention under contract no. J-LEAA 00981.

Edmonds, R. R. (1979). Effective schools for the urban poor. ***Educational Leadership, 37,*** 15-27.

Elliott, D. S., & Moss, H. (1974). ***Delinquency and dropout.*** Lexington, MA: Lexington Books.

Erikson, K. T. (1964). Notes on the sociology of deviance. In H. S. Baker (Ed.), ***The Other side.*** New York: Free Press.

Farkas, S. (Ed.). (1983). ***Juvenile justice: Myths and reality.*** Washington, DC: Institute of Educational Leadership.

Flynn, P. F. Testimony before the the U. S. Senate Subcommittee on Juvenile Justice, January 25, 1984.

Foley, E., & McConnaughy, S. B. (1982). ***Toward school improvement: Lessons from alternative high schools.*** New York: Public Education Association.

Grant, J., & Capell, F. (1983). ***Reducing school crime: A report on the school team approach.*** Nicasio, CA: Social Action Research Center.

Gottfredson, G. (1983). ***The social action effectiveness study, interim summary of alternative education evaluation.*** Baltimore: Johns Hopkins University.

Grimes, C. (1983). Girls and the law. In S. Farkas (Ed.), ***Juvenile justice: Myths and realities.*** Washington, DC: Institute of Educational Leadership.

Hawkins, J. D., & Wall, J. S. (1980). *Alternative education: Exploring the delinquency prevention potential.* Washington, DC: Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention.

Hawkins, J. D., & Weis, J. (1980). The social development model: An integrated approach to delinquency prevention. In R. J. Rubel (Ed.), *Juvenile delinquency prevention: Emerging perspectives of the 1980's.* San Marcos, TX: Institute of Criminal Justice Studies, Southwest Texas State University.

Hindelang, M. J. (1973). Causes of delinquency: A partial replication of extension. *Social Problems.*

Hirschi, T. (1969). *Causes of delinquency.* Berkeley, CA: University of California Press.

Howard, E. R. (1978). *School discipline desk book.* West Nyack, NY: Parker Publishing Company, Inc.

Howe, H., II. (1983). Education moves to center stage: An overview of recent studies. *Phi Delta Kappan, 65,* 167-172.

Hunter, M. (1982). *Mastery Teaching.* El Segundo, CA: TIP Publications.

Hunter, R., & Turner, M.L. (1981). *Law related education evaluation project.* Final Report, Phase II, Year 1. Grant No. 79-JN-AX-0036, Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention.

Kohlberg, L. (1972, November-December). A cognitive-developmental approach to moral education. *The Humanist.*

Little, J. W. (1981). *School success and staff development: The role of staff development in urban desegregated schools.* Boulder, CO: Center for Action Research.

Little, J. W., & Skarrow, M. (1981). *Delinquency prevention: Selective organizational change in the school.* Washington, DC: Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention.

McPartland, J. M., & McDill, E. L. (1977). *Violence in schools: Perspectives, programs, and positions.* Lexington, MA: D.C. Heath & Company.

Meade, E. J., Jr. Testimony before the U. S. House of Representatives Committee on Education and Labor, Subcommittee on Elementary, Secondary and Vocational Education on June 27, 1983.

Miller, W. B. (1958). Lower class culture as in generating milieu of gang delinquency. *Journal of Social Issues, 14,* 5-19.

National School Public Relations Association. (1977). *Alternative Schools: Why, What, Where, and How Much.* Arlington, VA: Author.

Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention. (1980). *Delinquency prevention through alternative education.* Washington, DC: Author.

Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention. (1983). *The school enhancement research project.* Washington, DC: Author.

Peters, T. J., & Waterman, R. H., Jr. (1982). *In search of excellence: Lessons from America's best-run companies.* New York: Harper & Row.

Purkey, S. C., & Smith, M. S. (1982). Too soon to cheer? Synthesis of research on effective schools. *Educational Leadership, 40,* 64-68.

Rosenthal, R. (1976). *Different strokes: Pathways to maturity in the Boston ghetto.* Boulder, CO: Westview Press.

Rutter, M., Maughan, B., Mortimore, P., Ouston, J., & Smith, A. (1979). *Fifteen thousand hours: Secondary schools and their effects on children.* Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

Shalaway, L. (1982-83). Schools can create delinquency. *Educational R & D Report, 5(2),* 2-6.

Shanker, A. Testimony before the U. S. Senate Subcommittee on Juvenile Justice on Jan. 25, 1984.

Slavin, R. E. (1979). *Using student team learning.* Baltimore: Johns Hopkins University.

Sutherland, E. H., & Cressey, D. R. (1974). *Principles of criminology* (9th ed.). New York: J. B. Lippincott.

Wayson, W. Testimony before the U. S. House of Representatives Subcommittee on Elementary, Secondary and Vocational Education in January 1984.

Weber, G. (1971). *Inner-city children can be taught to read: Four successful schools.* Washington, DC: Council for Basic Education.

Weick, K. E. (1976). Educational organizations as loosely coupled systems. *Administrative Science Quarterly, 21,* 1-19.

Weis, J. G., & Sederstrom, J. (1981). The prevention of serious delinquency: What to do? In *Reports to the National Juvenile Justice Assessment Centers.* Washington, DC: U.S. Government Printing Office.

Weis, J. G., & Hawkins, J. D. (1981). *Background paper for delinquency prevention research and development program.* Washington, DC: Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention.

Weis, J. G., Janview, R. L., & Hawkins, J. D. (Eds.). (1982). *Delinquency prevention program elements: The social development approach.* Washington, DC: Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention.

Weis, J. G., & Hawkins, J. D. (1980). *The social development model: An integrated approach to delinquency prevention.* Washington, DC: Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention.

CHAPTER 3

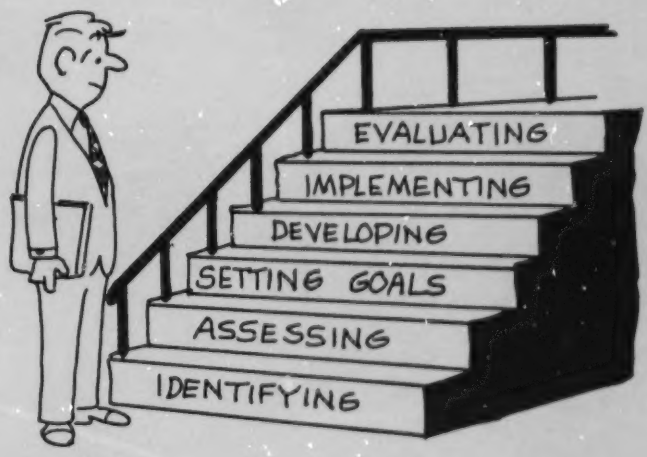
# Planning for Improvement: Everybody's Business

**Once school officials,** teachers, parents, students, and community members decide to make a school better and safer, how do they translate their commitment into action? In shifting from policy to practice, this chapter describes the first four steps of a six-step process that any school can follow for improvement: choosing a focus for change; assessing a school's strengths and weaknesses; setting goals and objectives; developing an action plan; implementing strategies; and evaluating programs. (Chapters 4 and 5 describe the last two steps.) The chapter provides detailed suggestions for conducting needs assessments, including brainstorming, holding formal discussions, and using surveys, which schools can design themselves or obtain from numerous sources. The chapter discusses the advantages and disadvantages of several needs assessment instruments, defines goals and objectives, and explains the roles of the task forces and management by objective in the context of school improvement.

## How to Plan

Schools are as dynamic as communities—always changing. The interaction between youth and educational environments is especially conducive to change. Sometimes, spontaneous change brings positive effects; often it results in chaos. Planning is essential if changes are to be lasting and desirable.

School leaders can capture the school population's idealism and energy and use them to improve academic performance and reduce misbehavior. To accomplish meaningful change,




officials first need to examine what is really going on in the school. Although no single set of instructions for improvement applies to every school, most schools will find these six steps helpful for planning and implementing changes:

1. Choosing a focus;
2. Assessing strengths and weaknesses;
3. Setting goals and objectives;
4. Developing an action plan;
5. Implementing strategies; and
6. Evaluating programs.

Following this process enables schools to answer three critical questions:

- Where are we?
- Where do we want to go?
- How and when are we going to get there?

In designing its program for improvement, the New York City Council on Local School Development published a convincing rationale for using comprehensive planning:

- Most problems arise from acting without thinking.
- Every hour spent in effective planning saves three to four in execution and achieves better results.
- Failing to plan means planning to fail.
- Pursuing planned objectives generally yields more effective results than leaving progress to chance.
- Expecting the unexpected and planning for it helps to avoid surprise.
- Obtaining broad-based involvement in developing a plan ensures broad-based commitment for its implementation.
- A written plan can be refined and followed; a plan that exists only in the mind can easily be forgotten.

(New York City Council on Local School Development, 1982).

Planning for change can be complicated and time-consuming, but the benefits more than compensate for the difficulties. The process accommodates both short and long-range plans, builds problem-solving skills, generates group support for new directions, and builds in a measurement system, which becomes the base for continuing program development.

*I do not consider 'veni, vedi, veci' a satisfactory method of assessing strengths and weaknesses."*

***"We emphasize that each school is unique; what works one place may not work elsewhere. We acknowledge that there are obstacles to effective collaboration. One of the most obvious lessons is that sound planning is never ending—and rarely easy."***

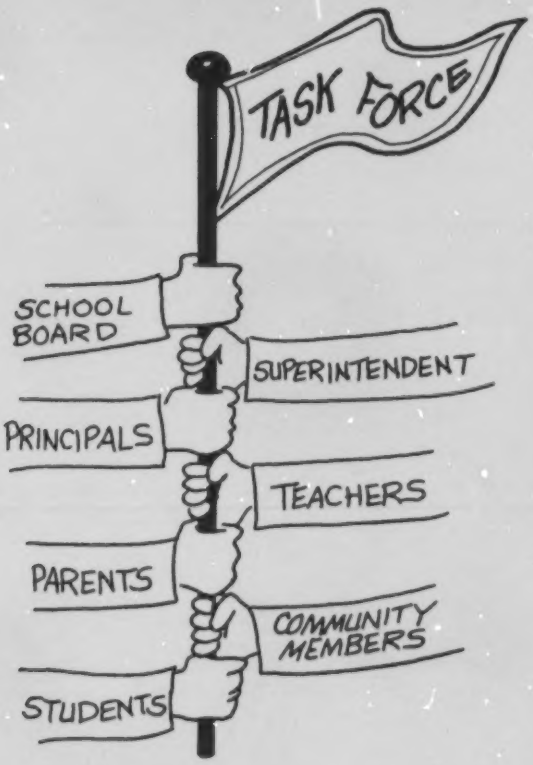
N.Y. Local School Development Project

For some, the mere suggestion of change may provoke resistance, which may surface as outright opposition or as more subtle "hidden agendas." During the planning stage, school leaders can overcome most opposition with information and communication and by including potential opponents in the planning process. A broad-based planning group should:

- Assess potential risks for various members of the school organization;
- Examine possible program alternatives;
- Ascertain the needs of the program's implementors by working directly with them;
- Plan for flexible use of data;
- Ensure appropriate data collection; and
- Furnish background information for those who will analyze and interpret the data.

In many cases, a committee representing various sectors of the school and local community, including law enforcement officials, manages the entire planning and implementation process. The committee becomes both a learning and a decision-making group. It is useful for a school improvement committee to develop a charge statement, listing all the tasks necessary for improving the school's climate. Such tasks might include:

- Conducting a study of the school climate improvement process to educate committee members about what climate is, how it can be assessed, and how it can be improved;
- Developing a library of materials concerning climate improvement, including descriptions of promising techniques used in other schools;
- Visiting other schools engaged in school-wide climate improvement programs;
- Planning and conducting information-sharing sessions with parent, faculty, and student groups;
- Assessing the climate of the school and interpreting the results of that assessment to parents, staff, and students;




- Identifying from one to three climate improvement projects to launch during the coming school year;
- Organizing a task force to plan and implement each project, and assisting each task force in planning its work;
- Coordinating the work of each task force; and
- Keeping parents, faculty, and students informed of the progress of the committee and its task forces.

(Howard, 1980).

Once the school improvement committee is established, it must decide where to concentrate its energies and attention. The first stage of this handbook's six-point plan can help to shape any school improvement project.

## Step 1: Choosing a Focus

There are many approaches to change. Choosing a focus for change is an exploratory process that begins with informal appraisal. Often a crisis, such as a drastic increase in the suspension rate or an unexplained drop in test scores, determines the direction of change. In some schools, time or money determines the choice. In others, the catalyst may be a desire to initiate new programs. The six-step process this chapter describes can work for any school, whatever its circumstances.

Although changes are usually implemented at the local level, the impetus and focus can come from the national, state, district, or local level. In the case of school safety, at the national level, the President and commissions appointed to assess the quality of education have identified the need for change. At the state level, the Delaware, Colorado, and Connecticut departments of education have taken the lead in designing programs, developing assessment instruments, and providing technical assistance to individual schools. At the district level, districts participating in the New York School Development Project and the Charleston, South Carolina, PATHE project, developed programs adapted to the needs of selected participating schools. At the local level, in La Playa de Ponce, Puerto Rico, a community organization initiated the Otro Camino Project in cooperation with a school. In Seattle, a single high school conceived and implemented a major project. The focus of all these projects is on improved learning and behavior.

The focus provides a starting point for planning change. The New York Local School Development Project limited the school improvement focuses to administrative style, basic skills instruction, school climate, continuing assessment of pupil progress, and teacher expectations (Edmonds, 1979). Schools chose their major areas of concern through a needs assessment process.

The Delaware Goal-Directed and Performance-Based Instruction Program has given schools wider options, allowing each school to identify its choices throughout a state-monitored process. Many schools choose to focus on improving some aspect of school climate by moving toward more people-centered beliefs, value systems, procedures, rules, regulations, and policies. Other schools concentrate on improving curriculum. Whatever the choice, pinpointing a focus signals that the change process is underway.

*"In most schools where significant progress has been made, a climate-improvement committee has been formed. This group is not an advisory group which . . . will study an issue and then think up things for other people to do. This is a working group which, together with the principal, will plan and coordinate the climate-improvement activities in the school."*

Eugene Howard
Colorado Department of Education

## Step 2: Assessing Strengths and Weaknesses

Depending on the preliminary focus, a needs assessment can be general or very specific in determining both what is working well in a school and what needs improving. Comprehensive assessments are time-consuming and can produce a flood of information. Keeping the focus in mind can help prevent planners from drowning in voluminous, irrelevant information. The more specific the assessment, the greater the necessity for careful planning.

Data collection is an accepted feature of school life. Most school systems already gather information about grades, absenteeism, and test scores. Close scrutiny of data often yields valuable clues about trends or problems in the schools. Five-year charts on grades or absentee rates, for example, provide a context for measuring a school's effectiveness.

A clear understanding of existing problems and relevant information enhances the design of a formal needs assessment. A school that decides to reduce its dropout rate has already made a preliminary needs assessment. The next step is to concentrate on the causes of the problem. Before it can reduce vandalism, a school board must formally identify vandalism as the problem, select test school sites, and design a suitable instrument for gathering information about the problem. In Connecticut, equity issues were of major concern, so the needs assessment instruments included questions for eliciting information about equity.

In considering how to conduct appropriate needs assessments, schools have three options: designing their own instruments, using instruments designed by other schools and research groups, or using established group process techniques. The choice of tools depends on specific purposes. If research or comparison to schools across the country is of prime concern, then standardized tests are the only choice. If national norms are irrelevant, the do-it-yourself model is an attractive option. For those that want established assessments, pre-tested

*"Actually, I don't use physical punishment anymore. Now, I sentence you to an eternity on a needs assessment committee."*

instruments exist in several forms. Many of these instruments can be adapted to individual school needs. Although most concentrate on several aspects of school climate, including instructional issues, some focus only on curriculum.

Most of the available instruments have separate forms for students and staff. Some have separate forms for principal, teachers, parents, and community members. Some tools are designed for elementary schools, and others for secondary schools. Some come in a battery of separate tests, and others in sections of a single instrument. With tools other than standardized tests, schools may choose which parts and subtests to use and which audiences to survey. In determining which tool to use, crucial decisions include: the specific purposes of the assessments; who is to participate; and who is to use the information once it is gathered. Although it is tempting to gather all the information possible, much of it may be extraneous. At the same time, restricting data collection at an early stage may preclude valuable insights.

Many existing instruments produce a sharp picture of school climate. For schools with unique characteristics, such as predominantly rural or industrial populations or unusual mixes of races or nationalities, however, these tests might be less useful than individually-designed instruments. School climate surveys generally solicit the following information:

- Views concerning the school's decision-making processes;

- Opinions about opportunities for student participation in school governance and in extracurricular activities;
- Perceptions regarding the consistency, fairness, and clarity of school rules;
- Assessment of communication channels among students, teachers, parents, administrators, and district and community officials;
- Perceptions concerning school safety;
- Responses to social interactions, including gangs and cliques;
- Feelings about grading policies; and
- Evaluations of school morale.

### Doing It Yourself

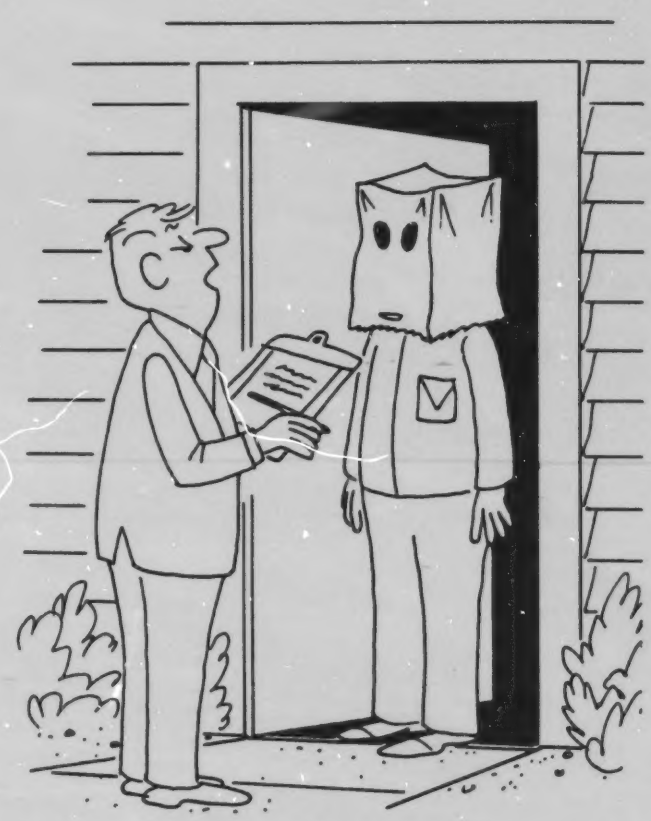
Designing an in-house needs assessment often requires a major commitment of time and money. School officials usually decide to take this step because they hope eventually to save money, or because they believe that no existing instrument would serve their intended purpose.

School improvement committees that design their own instruments have several characteristics in common:

- Ready access to data (student-attendance rates, grade-point averages, and college-attendance percentages) that are consistently maintained and similar in form;
- Access to staff or expertise capable not only of compiling data, but also of analyzing it in a meaningful and comprehensive way;
- Well-defined problems amenable to solutions based directly on the results of the needs assessment;
- A desire to solve problems without the scrutiny of people who have no personal stake in the school or district; and
- A desire to consider community interests.

A do-it-yourself needs assessment guarantees flexibility and options, allowing the planning committee to combine techniques, to modify them along the way, and to use both informal and formal methods. Obviously, conducting an in-house needs assessment may mean foregoing the advice of outside experts or other practitioners, unless money is available for hiring consultants.

Brainstorming, discussion groups, and surveys can be useful in structuring the assessment. Brainstorming encourages people to generate ideas quickly about tasks, problems, and solutions. Although brainstorming sessions are informal, they need careful structuring to produce usable ideas.



***"It's only an in-house needs assessment. What have you got to hide?"***

## *IN-HOUSE NEEDS ASSESSMENT*

### *Advantages*

May be tailored to special circumstances.

May be used to provide baseline data for comparison with future assessments.

May be used to conduct a brief assessment of school strengths and weaknessess.

May foster a shared understanding of school needs by involving various members of the school organization.

### *Disadvantages*

May be biased because designed by people intimately involved with the school.

May lend itself to impressionistic interpretation.

May be based on limited input.

May tend to provide no basis for comparison over time.

May take time from staff and teachers who have other responsibilities.

Usually requires skill or expertise in instrument design, tabulation, and statistical interpretation.

May require revision over time.

May use an untested approach that has limited validity.

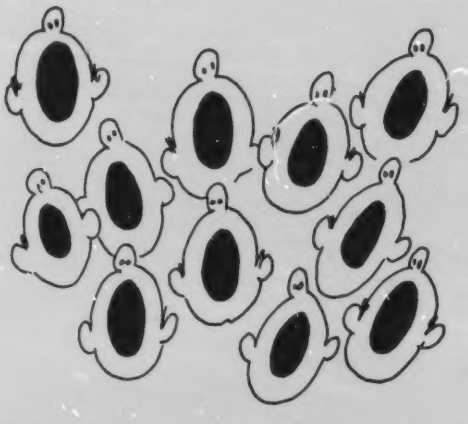
May be subject to criticism as being "self-serving," "biased," and "hiding the true problem."

***"Well, it happened when I threw out an idea at a brainstorming session."***

## *BRAINSTORMING*

| | |
|---|---|
| PROPOSED GOALS: | To set the proper stage for complete participation by students, staff, parents, and community leaders; |
| | To help the staff channel and direct its thinking about school problems; |
| | To encourage as many ideas or solutions as possible, saving evaluation and criticism for later; and |
| | To enhance the commitment to proposed solutions. |
| GROUP SIZE: | Eight to 15 participants. Large groups may break into smaller groups so everyone may participate. |
| MATERIALS NEEDED: | Butcher paper (the size depends on the exercise), chalk board, or flip chart to record ideas; and felt tip pens, markers, or chalk. |
| PROCEDURE: | Select a problem and state it clearly. Use a sample problem to introduce the idea. |
| | Select someone to record the ideas. |
| | Explain the rules: brainstorming means generating ideas as quickly as possible; even outlandish ideas are encouraged because they may spark useful ideas within the group; no evaluating occurs during the brainstorming session. |
| BENEFITS: | Brainstorming is a low-risk exercise. |
| | It focuses on ideas, not on the people contributing them. |
| | It provides a framework in which to consider a wide variety of problems, solutions, and tasks. The resulting ideas can be helpful for selecting school priorities at any time. |
| | Brainstorming encourages many people to contribute ideas and suggestions that might not come up otherwise. |

(Adapted from Prince, 1973).



Brainstorming can trigger chain reactions of creative thinking. Participants focus on only one or two topics at a time and postpone any discussion or analysis until after the session ends. A trained leader keeps the group focused on its task and encourages everyone to participate. Ideas recorded during the session can be the basis for further discussion, problem-solving, and review. Brainstorming is also useful for organizing and ranking needs and for developing solutions.

Like brainstorming sessions, formal group discussions help develop information about a school's weaknesses and strengths. Discussion groups are ideal forums for encouraging members of the school organization and the community at large to air their views. As with brainstorming, formal discussions require fixed time limits to maintain focus. Butcher paper, flip charts, and chalk boards, as well as tape recorders, are helpful for recording the discussion. Like other assessment techniques, formal discussion groups have definite advantages and disadvantages.

***DISCUSSION GROUPS***

***Advantages***

Can be quick and cheap.

Allow diverse, and often neglected, viewpoints to be heard.

Can provoke thoughts and action about needs.

Can help identify people interested in working on specific problems.

***Disadvantages***

Not always possible to let everyone who wishes to speak do so.

Viewpoints of people who cannot or will not come may not be represented.

May become emotional shouting matches that generate little usable information.

(Sundlee and Stapp, 1979)

## Scouting the Needs: Surveys

Planning committees may develop surveys independently, or as follow-ups to brainstorming sessions or group discussions. If, for example, the suspension rate increases suddenly or the student council lacks support, a simple questionnaire can find out why. A generally poor school climate probably requires a full-scale exploration of problems and attitudes. The usual purpose of surveys is to collect enough information for setting goals and objectives and choosing strategies. No matter who designs the survey, it should be pre-tested on a sample group and revise if necessary.

The questionnaire for a do-it-yourself survey requires careful planning, because the way a question is worded and asked can significantly influence the response (Pope, 1981). A questionnaire must:

- Translate the general topics into specific questions that the respondent can answer;
- Motivate the respondent to cooperate and give thoughtful replies; and
- Produce valid, reliable responses and information.

There are pluses and minuses to using surveys. Although surveys can be as broad or as narrow as necessary and can reach a representative portion of the target population, they require substantial development and analysis. Interviews and analysis may necessitate hiring additional staff.

***"How did the random sampling survey go today?"***

A survey is only reliable if those answering questions are truthful. If the survey identifies respondents or asks them about their own misbehavior or tendency to break school rules, reliability may be a problem. Although a margin of error is usually considered in interpreting results, planning can minimize bias and error.

School improvement committees should follow several steps in designing, conducting, and analyzing a survey:

1. Describe the goals and objectives of the assessment.

   Develop a list of desired information. Use specific questions, phrases, or key words, such as "likes" or "dislikes." This list will form the basis for developing questions. *Do not bypass it.* Those who write the questionnaire need to understand precisely what information they are seeking.
2. Define the targeted populations carefully.
3. Develop criteria for and use common sampling techniques, such as:

   ***Simple random sampling***

   —Select respondents completely at random from a listing of the universe of names.

   ***Convenience sampling***

   —Select respondents by interviewer preference.

   ***Judgment sampling***

   —Select certain respondents according to their participation in programs or activities.

   ***Quota sampling***

   —Select respondents with characteristics that are known or believed to affect the subject of the research.
4. Select the sample.
5. Develop a data-collection methodology (mail, personal interviews, telephone interviews).

   The method affects how, and in what order, to ask questions and determines what format the questionnaire should follow.
6. Develop the instrument.

   Write questions.

   Have a survey researcher who *is not* directly involved with the study review and critique the draft.

   Revise the draft.
7. Schedule data collection.
8. Collect the data.
9. Reduce the data by:

   Editing the questionnaire;

   Establishing a coding system; and

   Coding, tabulating, and displaying data.

***SURVEYS***

***Advantages***

May avoid questionable assumptions by collecting data directly from targeted populations.

Can estimate reliability of data and compare it with other information, using existing statistical techniques.

Can be developed and conducted by trained researchers usually employed by school systems.

May be conducted inexpensively if school or district has efficient copying equipment, staff to tabulate survey results, and expertise to analyze findings.

Can provide baseline data for later comparison.

***Disadvantages***

Can be expensive if large sample is tabulated manually, or if computer tabulation must be purchased.

Can be time-consuming.

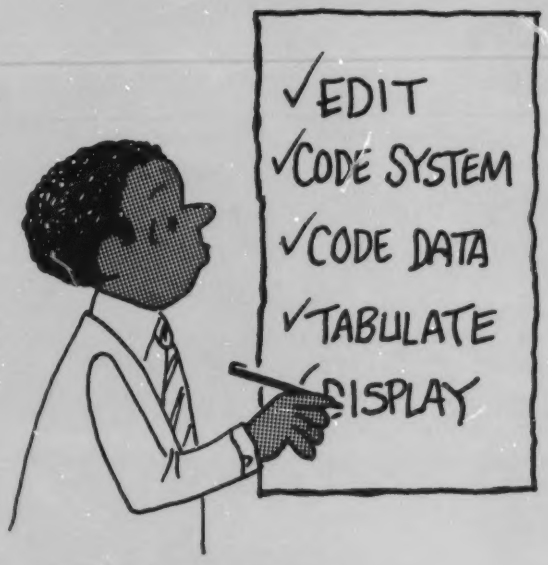
May be difficult to obtain an adequate sample.

May result in questionable self-report data.

Cannot compare results without previous, comparable data.

Accuracy cannot be ensured without going to another source to verify findings.

Requires expertise for tabulation and interpretation.



10. Analyze the data.
    The first analytic step involves tabulating the results. Sometimes the results are obvious. At other times, complex relationships require analysis by statistics experts or sophisticated, computer-based technology. With careful insight and caution, school leaders may be able to analyze their own results.

    (Adapted from Sundlee and Stapp, 1979).

## Conducting Needs Assessment with Outside Help

Where the do-it-yourself approach is not feasible, schools can use an existing needs assessment instrument or hire experts to assist in designing surveys and questionnaires. Most school districts, especially small ones, need help to conduct a thorough needs assessment. Cutting corners in assessing needs is unwise. (See resources in Part III for further guidance.)

While all the instruments listed in the following section have been widely tested and used, some are adaptable to individual schools or systems, and others have been standardized to produce established norms. Some can be used by following instructions in accompanying manuals, and others require more extensive leadership training and consultant help. Results of some may be analyzed within the school or system, and others may require outside experts.

Most of the instruments assess the social interactions and operational factors that exercise the greatest influence on school climate. Some of the instruments, however, examine special features, such as curriculum issues (Mini-Audit #1 and Successful Practices for Making Curriculum More Flexible) or social environment (Social Climate Scales). The Connecticut instruments examine equity issues along with more general climate factors.

This handbook considers the instruments in two groups: adaptable instruments and standardized instruments. Although both types assess individual schools, only standardized tests will allow comparisons with other schools.

*"Oh, he's adaptable, but I just wish we could standardize him."*

***ADAPTABLE INSTRUMENTS***

***Advantages***

Are easily accessible.

Have been tested and used successfully in other schools or districts.

May save time and money.

Provide some idea about expected results.

Can be altered to suit individual school or district needs.

Provide a data base for follow-up and evaluation.

Have flexible administrative requirements.

***Disadvantages***

Have no established norms for comparison.

Require tabulation.

Rely on judgmental interpretation.

Do not permit comparison with other schools.

Schools throughout the country have used a number of non-standardized tests. Examples of those that have proved effective include the CFK, LTD. School Climate Profile; the Mini-Audits #1 and #2, developed by Eugene Howard and his colleagues in the Colorado Department of Education; the Battelle School-Community Climate Survey; the Connecticut Department of Education's recently developed instruments; and the Successful Practices for Making Curriculum More Flexible model, also designed by Eugene Howard. The section below briefly describes these instruments.

## Adaptable Instruments

***Instrument Description***

CFK LTD. SCHOOL CLIMATE PROFILE

This instrument is for assessing a school's climate factors and determinants as a basis for setting priorities for improvement and as a baseline measure for analyzing changes. It is an overall assessment tool rather than a definitive or exhaustive survey.

Sample factors are listed for each of the program, process, and material determinants. Participants rate climate factors on the basis of "what is" and "what should be" using a scale of 1 (almost never) to 4 (almost always). See boxes for samples of School Climate Determinants and General Climate Factors.

***Further Information***

Included in Robert S. Fox, et al., *School Climate Improvement: A Challenge To The School Administrator,* Phi Delta Kappa, Bloomington, Indiana.

***Instrument Description***

BATTELLE'S SCHOOL-COMMUNITY CLIMATE SURVEY

Four questionnaires (for students, teachers, parents and community members, administrators and board members) ask for opinions about how services and programs are currently operating and what changes are needed. Participants respond on a scale of 1 to 5. Manuals describe procedures for conducting the survey and data processing. Battelle will assist in providing additional help on a fee-for-service basis.

***Further Information***

Margaret Spurgeon
Training, Technical Media and Human Factors Group
Battelle Memorial Institute
505 King Avenue
Columbus, Ohio 43201
(614) 424-7165

***SCHOOL BOARD CLIMATE DETERMINANTS***

| *Program Determinants* | *Process Determinants* | *Material Determinants* |
|---|---|---|
| Opportunities for Active Learning | Problem-Solving Ability | Adequate Resources |
| Individualized Performance Expectations | Improvement of School Goals | Supportive and Efficient Logistical System |
| Varied Learning Environments | Identifying and Working with Conflicts | Suitability of School Plant |
| Flexible Curriculum and Extracurricular Activities | Effective Communications | |
| Support and Structure Appropriate to Learner's Maturity | Involvement in Decision Making | |
| Rules Cooperatively Determined | Autonomy with Accountability | |
| Varied Reward Systems | Effective Teaching-Learning Strategies | |
| | Ability to Plan for the Future | |

***Instrument Description***

COLORADO MINI-AUDIT; SCHOOL CLIMATE: A TOTAL STAFF DEVELOPMENT KIT, MINI-AUDITS #1 and #2

The Mini-Audits quickly identify needs and strengths for a school that wants less than a full-scale examination. The audits define activities, processes, and projects that contribute to a positive school climate and help staff understand school climate and what can be done to improve it. The instruments use a five-point scale (very weak to very strong) to measure "what is" and "what should be" in the following areas: philosophy, student and staff evaluation reward systems, problem-solving and conflict resolution, decision-making processes, rules and regulations, school improvement processes, communications structure, formal organizational structure, curriculum characteristics, curriculum organization, extracurricular programs, varied learning environment, support and structure, goal-setting and planning processes, logistical system, and physical facilities. The Colorado Mini-Audits can be conducted by a visiting team with a trained leader or by using the staff development kit. Using printed instructions and film strips from the ASCD packet, school personnel can administer Mini-Audits #1 and #2.

| *GENERAL CLIMATE FACTORS* | What Is: | | | | What Should Be: | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| ***Respect:*** | | | | | | | | |
| 1. In this school even low-achieving students are respected. | ___ | ___ | ___ | ___ | ___ | ___ | ___ | ___ |
| 2. Teachers treat students as persons. | ___ | ___ | ___ | ___ | ___ | ___ | ___ | ___ |
| 3. Parents are considered by this school as important collaborators. | ___ | ___ | ___ | ___ | ___ | ___ | ___ | ___ |
| 4. Teachers from one subject area or grade level respect those from other subject areas. | ___ | ___ | ___ | ___ | ___ | ___ | ___ | ___ |
| 5. Teachers in this school are proud to be teachers. | ___ | ___ | ___ | ___ | ___ | ___ | ___ | ___ |
| | | | ☐ | | | | ☐ | |
| ***Trust:*** | | | | | | | | |
| 1. Students feel that teachers are "on their side." | ___ | ___ | ___ | ___ | ___ | ___ | ___ | ___ |
| 2. While we don't always agree, we can share our concerns with each other openly. | ___ | ___ | ___ | ___ | ___ | ___ | ___ | ___ |
| 3. Our principal is a good spokesman before the superintendent and the board for our interests and needs. | ___ | ___ | ___ | ___ | ___ | ___ | ___ | ___ |
| 4. Students can count on teachers to listen to their side of the story and to be fair. | ___ | ___ | ___ | ___ | ___ | ___ | ___ | ___ |
| 5. Teachers trust students to use good judgment. | ___ | ___ | ___ | ___ | ___ | ___ | ___ | ___ |
| | | | ☐ | | | | ☐ | |
| ***High Morale:*** | | | | | | | | |
| 1. This school makes students enthusiastic about learning. | ___ | ___ | ___ | ___ | ___ | ___ | ___ | ___ |
| 2. Teachers feel pride in this school and in its students. | ___ | ___ | ___ | ___ | ___ | ___ | ___ | ___ |
| 3. Attendance is good; students stay away only for urgent and good reasons. | ___ | ___ | ___ | ___ | ___ | ___ | ___ | ___ |
| 4. Parents, teachers, and students would rise to the defense of this school's program if it were challenged. | ___ | ___ | ___ | ___ | ___ | ___ | ___ | ___ |
| 5. I like working in this school. | ___ | ___ | ___ | ___ | ___ | ___ | ___ | ___ |
| | | | ☐ | | | | ☐ | |

***Further Information***

Eugene Howard
School Improvement and Leadership Unit
Colorado Department of Education
1362 Lincoln
Denver, Colorado 80203
(303) 534-8871 Ext. 347

Mini-Audit #1 and #2 Kit available from
Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development (ASCD)
225 North Washington Street
Alexandria, Virginia 22314
(804) 549-9110

***Instrument Description***

CONNECTICUT INSTRUMENTS

Connecticut has developed and tested five questionnaires as part of its Secondary School Development Process. There are two versions, with 100 questions each, for teachers, and three versions, with 50 questions each, for students. All cover organizational dynamics, school effectiveness, and equity. Participants respond on a scale of A (strongly agree) to E (strongly disagree). Bar graph tabulations give clear evidence of strengths and weaknesses. See box for sample questions.

***Further Information***

Dr. William J. Gauthier, Jr.
Bureau of School and Program Development
Connecticut State Department of Education
P.O. Box 2219
Hartford, Connecticut 06145
(203) 566-2283

***SAMPLE RATING STATEMENTS FROM CONNECTICUT INSTRUMENTS***

1. Students are expected to master subject matter at each grade level.
2. The faculty is integrated.
3. Courses stress the accomplishments of various racial and ethnic groups.
4. Sport functions and dances are well attended.
5. This school has clear, consistent rules.
6. Student assignments are corrected daily.
7. What students are taught in high school will help them later in life.
8. The principal talks with us frankly and openly.
9. Students who want to learn are often interfered with.
10. Discipline (punishment), when it is given, is fair and related to violations of agreed-upon rules.

***Instrument Description***

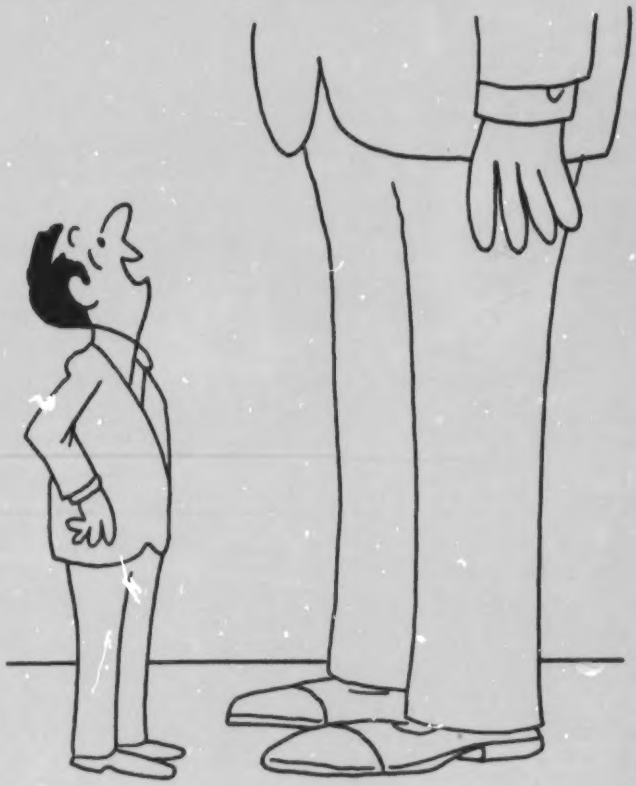
SUCCESSFUL PRACTICES FOR MAKING CURRICULUM MORE FLEXIBLE

These instruments are useful if a school has decided to focus on instructional issues. The areas covered include: providing for individual differences, integrating active learning, and fostering the community-school concept. Items are rated on a scale of 0 to 3 for "what is" and "impact potential." Responses indicate areas of success and areas of major concern.

***Further Information***

Eugene Howard
Colorado Department of Education
1362 Lincoln
Denver, Colorado 80203
(303) 534-8871 Ext. 347

Standardized instruments provide schools with objective data that is unavailable from self-designed or easily customized surveys. If comparisons with other schools are important, or research is of special interest, standardized instruments are essential.



***"So, who do you think conducts mini-audits?"***

***STANDARDIZED INSTRUMENTS***

***Advantages***

Can be comprehensive.

Are based on established national norms, so can be used to compare with other schools.

Provide baseline data for future comparisons.

May save time.

***Disadvantages***

May involve substantial purchase and interpretation costs.

Require careful administration.

May not be based on a norm group similar to the local school using them.

Are not adaptable to individual schools.

Require interpretation.

May not be locally useful, depending on outcome.

The following section briefly describes several widely used standardized instruments, including Halpin and Croft's Organizational Climate Description Questionnaire, the Rudolf Moos Social Climate Scales, and Likert's Profile of a School.

### Standardized Instruments

***Instrument Description***

ORGANIZATIONAL CLIMATE DESCRIPTION QUESTIONNAIRE (OCDQ)

OCDQ measures faculty perceptions of school climate. The resulting profile rests on a continuum from "open climate" to "closed climate." Four sub-tests (disengagement, hindrance, esprit, and intimacy) chart characteristics of the faculty as a group; four other sub-tests (aloofness, production emphasis, thrust, consideration) measure leaders' behavior. This instrument primarily gauges morale in elementary schools.

***Further Information***

Claude C. Dove Learning Center
College of Education
New Mexico State University
Box 3AC
Las Cruces, New Mexico 88001

***Instrument Description***

SOCIAL CLIMATE SCALES (Rudolf Moos)

This is a widely used battery of 12 instruments, each comprising 90 to 100 true-false items. The results cover three major dimensions of the social environment: the nature and intensity of personal relationships; personal growth and self-enhancement influences; and system maintenance and change dimensions. The instruments measure work, classroom, and family environments. Parallel forms measure the "real, ideal and expected" environments. The levels of reliability and validity are considered acceptable for planning.

***Further Information***

Consulting Psychologists Press, Inc.
577 College Avenue
Palo Alto, California 94306

***Instrument Description***

LIKERT'S "PROFILE OF A SCHOOL"

Elementary (grades 4 to 6) and secondary questionnaires measure organizational climate, leadership style and behavior, and peer relationships. Forms are available for parents, students (long and short versions), and staff. Norms exist for teacher, principal, and student responses. Some forms have room for additions by local schools, others do not. The purchase price includes data processing.

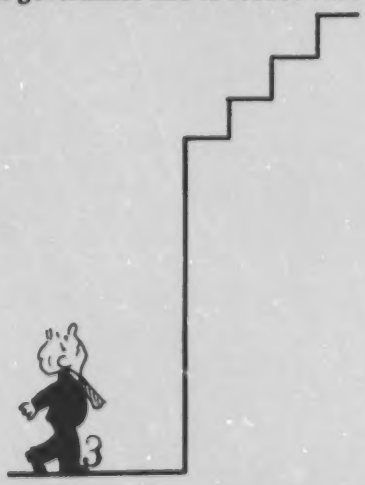
***Further Information***

Renis Likert Associates, Inc.
3001 South State Street
Suite 401
Ann Arbor, Michigan 48104
(313) 769-1980

Whatever the method of assessment, the instrument must gear responses to tabulation and analysis. The form of the analysis must be useful to the planning committee. Graphs and charts can provide information at a glance.

## Step 3: Setting Goals and Objectives

Goals indicate where a school intends to go; objectives indicate how it intends to get there. With improved school climate as its goal, for example, a school's objectives might be to improve attendance and student governance and to reduce vandalism.



Whatever the objectives, they should meet at least three major criteria:

1. They should be expressed in clear, understandable, and concrete words.
2. They should be realistic and achievable.
3. They should be measurable and defined in such a way that when they have been met, success will be recognizable.

It is always tempting to set high goals and objectives in order to encourage enthusiasm and effort. Unfortunately, planning groups often establish unrealistic goals. Setting goals and objectives means balancing between what is theoretically possible and what is feasible. Everyone wants to raise the reading ability of all students to grade level, but achieving such an objective may not be realistic in the short term. Aiming for a high percentage of students passing the state reading proficiency test might be more realistic, especially if the group includes a significant number of youth at risk.

Goals and objectives can also give direction to school operations. Management by Objective (MBO), a common industry practice, can be successfully adapted for schools. The technique requires, however, considerable cooperation from the community, the school board, and the classroom.

One of the major issues in MBO is whether to establish objectives from the top down or from the bottom up. Both approaches offer advantages. The bottom-up approach encourages maximum participation by those most involved in the day-to-day operation of an organization. In the school, this includes teachers, staff, and students. Using the top-down approach, school leaders take the initiative by providing clear guidelines for making schools better and safer. For example, the school board might change personnel assignment policies or the managerial focus of superintendents and principals. Many schools shy away from setting goals related to school safety and discipline, although desire for a safe school is often a primary focus of change. Because safety also encourages achievement, specific goals can aim at establishing an orderly environment.

Many organizations have discovered that the process cannot be "exclusively top-down or bottom-up if it is to be an effective way of managing. . . . " They find that the communication and planning effort must go in both directions (Kast and Rosenzweig, 1979). Studies of MBO programs have shown they improve communication, increase mutual understanding of goals and objectives, create more positive attitudes toward the evaluation process, use everyone's abilities, and promote innovations. Some organizations, however, may rely too heavily on the top-down approach,

*". . . Communication and planning efforts must go in both directions."*

### *HOW POSITIVE IS YOUR SCHOOL'S CLIMATE?*

For a quick look at how your school's climate compares with others serving similar pupils, rate the following factors on a scale of 1 to 4 (1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = agree, 4 = strongly agree):

___1. Our school has comparatively few discipline problems.
___2. Vandalism is not a problem in our school.
___3. Attendance is good in this school.
___4. Our student and staff morale is high.
___5. Our pupil achievement is high.
___6. Pupils feel a high sense of ownership and pride in this school.
___7. Our staff and students trust, care about, and respect one another a great deal.
___8. Our school's various social groups, or cliques, communicate well with one another, respect one another, and work together for the benefit of the school.
___9. Our students and staff frequently participate in problem-solving and school-improvement activities.
___10. The threat level in our school is low (i.e., people do not have to worry about being treated disrespectfully, becoming failures, or being physically harmed).
___ TOTAL

A score of 30 or above indicates a very positive climate.
(Adapted from a Phi Delta Kappa pamphlet entitled *School Climate Improvement: A Challenge to the School Administrator,* by Robert J. Fox, et al.)

which minimizes the internal participation that is necessary if a school is to gain the support it needs in order to change. As this handbook has noted, effective schools have strong principals. School boards, therefore, must adopt policies and practices that encourage strong leadership that responds to students, staff, and community.

The key to making MBO work for schools is a systems approach to organizational planning. Often schools must develop collateral support for those whom change will affect. For example, if school leaders decide to use merit pay as an incentive to improve instruction, they may also need to provide for improving the morale of teachers who do not respond to the incentive or whose efforts to improve are insufficient to warrant extra pay.

Because they work with people rather than products, school leaders must be concerned with personalities and ideas. Difficult-to-measure "soft" objectives are as important to schools as are quantifiable objectives. Goal-setting requires considering people, other available resources, resistance, possibilities for tapping outside expertise, and funding sources. School leaders cannot ignore possible constraints to reaching goals and objectives. Identifying support and obstacles is important because people and resources outside the schools affect the school system. For example, state or local governments may curtail funding; or student reassignment due to school closings may postpone action or may require alterations in the plan.

"Force field analysis" means carefully analyzing the internal and external factors affecting an organization. Charting the forces supporting and resisting achievement of a goal provides a basis for planning tactics and strategy and for implementing priorities. Using this formal approach helps clarify existing positions and anticipate difficulties or opposition.

The key to consolidating support and overcoming obstacles is to coordinate efforts and communicate as much as possible with everyone involved. Only through cooperation can change occur systematically throughout the entire school organization. Although changes may be unnecessary or even impossible at all levels of the organization, everyone must understand what changes may occur and whom they will affect. Coordinated efforts succeed only when all the players involved understand what others will be doing throughout the process.

Individuals in the school may feel that a new program is minimizing their roles. Introducing new teaching techniques more familiar to recently trained teachers may threaten senior teachers, or school officials and staff may be suspicious of law enforcement officials. Carefully planned in-service workshops help familiarize teachers with new techniques, new personnel, and the necessity of including community and law enforcement personnel in planning. Once individuals understand, they can become more effective parts of any planned changes.

Within the school organization, everyone needs to know the difference between ends and means. Often it is difficult to separate needs from solutions. Teachers who need a way to improve academic performance may report that they need a new writing skills center or teacher-advisor teams. What the teachers may really need, however, is a new curriculum for teaching students how to write. Similarly, school safety problems may lead some to proclaim a need for new rules. But the problem may

***"Changing behavior and changing norms takes time. One change project found that just trying to improve communication skills in a faculty is counterproductive unless more than twenty-four hours of training is provided (Runkel and Schmuck, 1974). In addition to having a long-range perspective, the improvement process should also be focused. Fullan and Pomfret (1977) found that innovations are more likely to be successful if the goals are discrete and moderately complex."***

David A. Squires, et al (1983)
*Effective Schools and Classrooms*

be lack of enforcement or clarity. Clear, certain, and fair enforcement of existing codes may solve the problem.

School leaders need to be alert to the danger of focusing exclusively on short-term goals. By asking direct questions, administrators can track how staff and teachers view their functions and fulfill their responsibilities. In some cases, maintaining order at the expense of improving learning may jeopardize long-term objectives. Coordination and communication in the school organization can clarify different functions and responsibilities. School safety issues are not intractable, and neither they nor academic improvement can be ignored. In the final analysis, school leaders hold the keys to motivation and ultimate success in determining goals and objectives and setting balanced agendas for implementing them.

## Step 4: Developing an Action Plan

One of the most effective ways to develop an action plan—to transform ideas into working programs—is the task force. The Mini-Audit and School Climate Profile processes suggest this approach. Whether the group is called a task force, advisory group, or strategy selection committee, it must have the power to plan adequately. That power is guaranteed by including key community and school leaders at all levels: school board officials, superintendent, principals, teachers, parents, students, community members, and law enforcement officials.

While concentrating on a selected priority, such as reducing violence, eliminating vandalism, or developing curriculum options, each task force may also attack the broad issue of improving school climate.

Unlike advisory groups, task forces are created to support action. Members analyze practices and approaches, visit other school programs, map strategies, plan activities, and design and help implement projects. They should do so, however, under the leadership of the principal or other on-site administrator who has ultimate responsibility for the campus. Most task forces periodically report their progress, often describing an anticipated or new program.

### Putting the Plan Together

For each priority, task force members need to review possible strategies or techniques, keeping in mind five questions:

1. Which goal or objective will this strategy meet?
2. Who will be responsible for meeting each goal or objective?
3. What exactly are the tasks?
4. When will the work begin and end?
5. Where will the work take place?

The task force charts specific tasks, deadlines, meeting times and places, names of those responsible for each task, and the timing and form of reports and evaluations. Listing alternatives and developing troubleshooting expertise can often save time if initial strategies become impractical or ineffective.

In designing any program, a task force should consider the advice of change experts:

- Start with a plan that will show some immediate results to win converts.
- Know that change may take as long as 3 to 5 years—or longer.
- Assume that change will entail substantial in-service training and continuing support.

Part II of this handbook contains strategies and programs that may help individual schools meet their goals and objectives. Although the list is not exhaustive, schools have tried the strategies and found them promising. They can save time and effort.

Each strategy includes a statement of purpose, rationale, target audience, and description of how

*Short cuts don't work.*

*"The directive says that we are the Task Force for Policy Implementation. That means if the programs don't work, we get the blame."*

the program operates. Part II also discusses briefly how effective each strategy has been, who to contact for additional information, and what materials, personnel, and training the strategy requires for successful implementation.

Before making final choices, task force or advisory committee members can contact schools and organizations that have previously used the strategies. In some cases, it is possible to visit schools or districts where programs are in use or to have experienced participants consult with the planning committee. Many of the resources in Part III can help schools establish contact with other organizations that offer guidance and technical assistance for selecting and implementing strategies.

As with needs assessment, schools can choose to design their own programs or adapt features of other programs. Using parts of programs, however, may change their focus. Diluting approaches to delinquency prevention research and development may result in less implementation and less positive change, allowing critics to argue that "prevention doesn't work." Newly developed programs must be reviewed and tested, which requires that adequate time and staff support be built into the plan.

"Staff development can be conceived of as the process of constructing a mosaic that is enlarged and sharpened with the addition of each new piece, or activity. Individual teachers produce their unique mosaics with idiosyncratic patterns, but they can also participate as members of a team in building a unified image of the desired effects of districtwide programs. This unified image will grow out of consensus about the goals of staff development and its relationship to systematic school improvement. It represents a collegial effort to promote effective teaching as a means to achieving specific objectives for the entire school or district. A comprehensive approach to staff development allows teachers to increase their teaching repertoires, schools to apply research to the improvement of the teaching environment, and teachers as individuals to study their subjects and the teaching process."

Wynne DeBevoise,
*R&D Perspectives,* Fall 1983
University of Oregon

### Building Positive Reinforcement for Change

Once the task force develops or adopts strategies, three important details need attention:

1. The task force must help the school organization understand the action plan. The details of who, what, and how much time and money will be involved and who will be in charge must be clear to everyone the change will affect.
2. The task force must create *a realistic* timetable for implementing strategies. The timelines should include reasonable benchmarks for accomplishing objectives and should allow adequate time to yield measurable effects. Timelines help reinforce the idea of change and take the mystery out of the planning process.
3. School leaders must make firm commitments to adopt and pursue the task force's plan of action and to advocate it in the community, and before the school board, parents associations, and faculty and student groups.

After school leaders have negotiated support, they must adhere to the schedule for implementing the strategies and evaluating their success. Often, positive results do not occur immediately, and staff or the community become impatient. If community members have been aboard from an early stage, they are more likely to provide continuing support. Frequent communication and continuous public relations efforts are also beneficial. In any case, school leaders can and should note progress along the way at planned intervals.

Careful planning is crucial to designing better and safer schools and does not permit short-cuts. Yet no matter how conscientious the planning, the implementation and evaluation must be equally careful. A plan is not sacred and inviolate, but must allow for flexibility and whatever alterations are dictated by implementation and evaluation. These last two important steps are the heart of the change process, which the next two chapters discuss in detail.

## Bibliography


*Comprehensive planning manual.* (1981). New York: New York City Council on Local School Development.

Edmonds, R. R. (1979). Effective schools for the urban poor. *Educational Leadership, 37,* 15-27.

Howard, E. R. (1980). *Implementing school climate activities.* Denver, CO: Colorado Department of Education.

Kast, E. F., & Rosensweig, J. F. (1979). *Organization and management.* New York: McGraw-Hill.

Nighswander, J.K. (1981). *A guide for discipline program planning.* Cambridge, MA: Oelgeschlager, Gunn, & Hain Publishers, Inc.

Pope, J. (1981). *Practical marketing research.* New York: American Management Association.

Prince, G. L. (1973). *School and self assessment processes: A guidebook for school administrators.* Englewood, CO: Charles F. Kettering, Ltd.

Squires, D. A., Huitt, W. G., & Segars, J. K. (1983). *Effective schools and classrooms: A research-based perspective.* Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.

Sundlee, C.A., & Stapp, W. (1979). *The YAT manual.* Nicasio, CA: Social Action Research Center.

CHAPTER 4

# Fulfilling Plans: Implementation

**The discussion now moves** to the realm of school corridors, cafeterias, and classrooms, offering guidance for converting the momentum of planning into programs and practices that prevent delinquency.

To guide school improvement committees as they implement delinquency prevention programs, this chapter discusses techniques for improving school climates, raising standards and expectations for achievement and discipline, providing alternatives to suspension, selecting program staff, securing funding and other resources, and building partnerships with communities.

The chapter examines several aspects of improving school climate, including building trust and increasing communication among teachers, administrators, students, and the community. The discussion provides suggestions for resolving the dilemmas and managing the crises and conflicts inherent in the process. The chapter explains the difference between standards and expectations, and discusses the need for higher expectations for learning by all students. A detailed consideration of in-school alternatives to suspension follows a discussion of the importance of building social bonds, rather than alienating students, through sound disciplinary measures.

Next, the chapter addresses the importance of leadership in appointing outstanding employees to operate delinquency prevention programs and discusses the role of training. The chapter then explores strategies for locating resources and involving communities, particularly business communities, in helping schools prevent delinquency.

*"Not to question your priorities, but 'going to hell in a hand basket' is hardly an effective way to improve school climate."*

## Getting Change Started

Ideally, planning school-based strategies for delinquency prevention builds school-wide agreement about expectations, commitments, and specific program responsibilities. Planning should enhance the school's ability to address academic and behavioral problems. Effective planning reflects a growing consensus about the school's needs and about what approaches will best improve the school community.

As Chapter 2 pointed out, plans and programs must be designed and carried out differently for different levels of schooling to address the needs of various age groups (Grant & Capell, 1983). If, for example, a task force wants to change a junior high school's methods of addressing discipline, attendance, and school security, several approaches are available, including:

*"The motion for speeding up the decision-making process was tabled."*

- Creating an in-school suspension program;
- Offering rewards for good behavior;
- Using students as hall monitors; and
- Revising the school's handbook of rules and expectations.

At the high school level, a disciplinary approach to prevention may be less effective than a communications approach, which might include:

- Weekly breakfasts for teachers;
- Talent shows including both students and teachers;
- Teachers' visits to the homes of selected students;
- Student-parent-teacher task forces on vandalism;
- Parent meetings concerning school problems; or
- Student advisory councils to principals.

### Mapping For Success

A plan for delinquency prevention is not a blueprint so much as it is an intention to create a self-fulfilling prophecy of success. To implement a program successfully means following through with commitments and responsibilities in order to meet expectations. Although theory, method, technology, program and school characteristics, costs, funds, and governance structures play a role in implementation, the critical ingredient for success of any project affecting students' performance is how well faculty and administrators, especially principals, collectively define, adjust, and carry out programs at the school building level (Berman & McLaughlin, 1978). Pragmatic administrators recognize that schools cannot control all the variables, such as an unexpected influx of students with extraordinary needs. Changed circumstances may extend the implementation period, but if the plan is what it should be, built-in flexibility and a commitment to success will help the school community make the necessary adjustments.

### *CLIMATE IMPROVEMENT PROJECTS*

School improvement committees can choose from many types of projects for improving school climates (Howard, 1980):

- Projects that enable parents, pupils, and staff to work together include improving the climate of the cafeteria or media center.
- Projects that involve many people in beautifying the school building and grounds include student-painted murals, clean-up days, or tree planting activities.
- Projects that enhance experiential learning include independent study programs, community internships, and classroom interest centers.
- Projects that encourage people to help one another include pupils tutoring each other, and teachers becoming advisors for students who need help.

*"Boss, about your 'self-fulfilling prophecy' on discipline . . . "*

# Improving School Climate

Workable plans feature steps for improving school climate so that faculty, staff, and students care, respect, and trust each other. Successful school improvement projects characteristically:

- Create and maintain community and school-wide expectations;
- Establish collaboration among parents, community, faculty, staff, school administrators, and district officials, for comprehensive school development.

In school improvement projects, which depend on and affect the entire school community, involvement, attachment, commitment, and belief are important developmental aims for everyone (Weis and Hawkins, 1981). Meeting these aims enhances community and school climate, faculty and administration morale, and the quality of educational resources available to students. When staff morale is high, teachers feel personally engaged with their work and believe that it exerts a positive influence on the lives of their students.

The most important recent finding about public education is that all schools can build high morale and performance. Factors that foster improved and effective schools include:

- Opportunities for individuals and groups to participate in activities for social development;
- Resources for acquiring skills—for planning, networking, new methods of instruction, management, evaluation—necessary for taking advantage of opportunities to participate; and
- Consistent high expectations and rewards for participation.

(Weis and Hawkins, 1981).

***Enthusiasm is catching.***

Achieving success requires understanding and support at the top levels of the school system. School boards should widely publicize their commitment to programs that enable all children to learn and all teachers to teach. Strategic, systematic publicity by prominent school officials will reinforce awareness that prevention is for all students—not just youth at risk and potential dropouts—and for teachers, parents, and the community, as well.

> ***"If the school is to be effective generally for all students, it must be characterized by high levels of expectations for all students."***
>
> W.B. Brookover
> *Effective Secondary Schools*

## Building Trust

A climate of trust depends on exemplary leadership from the principal, who must communicate expectations to individual staff members, to students, and to the school as a whole. The principal is the decisive factor in creating and sustaining conditions for school-wide changes. The principal must demonstrate commitment, enthusiasm, and understanding in order to elicit the involvement and commitment of others—which are crucial for successful implementation.

In a climate of trust, teachers can experiment with new methods and expect administrative support, even when results are disappointing. Trust assures teachers that they will not receive negative

evaluations for failing to achieve immediate success or for testing new instructional techniques. In a climate of trust, students receive support for schoolwide improvement and a variety of personal accomplishments. Teachers receive broad support where leadership builds schoolwide trust and enlists parents and community leaders for comprehensive efforts to engage all students in rewarding school activities.

Communication and increased opportunity to improve instructional capabilities enhance trust between teachers and administrators. To open channels of communication and opportunities for improvement:

- Faculty-staff meetings should address educational rather than administrative matters; staff members should share and reward successful classroom experiences.
- Staff members should have frequent opportunities to learn about children's and adolescents' development and culture, particularly the needs of students from other racial and ethnic groups and socioeconomic classes.
- Administrators should encourage collegial development of materials, curricula, and projects and should provide resources, including expert assistance and free time, wherever possible. Staff should select, adapt, or develop instructional materials and approaches, acquiring greater understanding of possible classroom applications and a sense of administrative support, as well.
- Training should relate to specific local conditions and concrete problems, taking the form, for example, of "how to" workshops by respected colleagues.

Implementation proceeds smoothly when the school organization and staff are receptive to self-evaluation and change. Because community dynamics are evolving, and because adolescents are undergoing especially confusing and rapid physical, emotional, and cognitive development, a school and its staff must adapt readily to unexpected situations.

Developing trust, school-wide understanding, and support for change requires sufficient time for:

- Participants to reaffirm their original agreements as projects move forward;
- Implementers to deploy the resources necessary for achieving aims;
- Staff to help colleagues accomplish common goals;
- Teachers and administrators to learn about and experiment with fresh ideas; and
- Teachers to realize that investing time and energy in school improvement is paying off.

### *SUPPORT*

"The Project has facilitated team teaching and teacher support, something I've been working to achieve, without past success, for years. Teaching is an isolating experience, but the Project has emphasized commonalities between instructors, and has helped to establish a supportive and reinforcing relationship between teachers, coaches, and principals.

"Discipline problems have decreased among experimental classrooms because teachers have been trained to deal with disruptions before they get out of hand. Another benefit has been increased opportunities for teachers and parents to work together. The response of teachers has been very positive. One teacher, who several months ago wanted nothing to do with the Project, is now one of its strongest advocates."

Georgia West, Instructional Leader
Meany Middle School
Seattle, Washington (1983)
OJJDP School Enhancement Project

### *OPPORTUNITIES, SKILLS, AND RECOGNITION FOR TEACHERS*

The American Federation of Teachers' 1983 policy statement on educational reform urges "Expanded opportunities for teachers to:

- Help new teachers;
- Implement staff development plans; and
- Create patterns of collegiality that ensure ongoing professional renewal."

*"My personal goal is to try to keep up with the great enthusiasm that the support group gives the teachers. It is exhausting in a wonderful way. The results surely will be a climate in the classroom of learning, thinking, and growth."*

Helen Bottomly, Instructional Leader
McClure Middle School
Seattle, Washington (1983)
OJJDP School Enhancement Project

## Changing Habits and Perceptions

Until recently, few efforts have approached school improvement from the perspective of the total school environment. Delinquency prevention programs, however, require such an approach. School and community leaders responsible for implementing prevention efforts must convey this perspective to the community, parents, students, and educators in order to combat myths about delinquency and to overcome habitual, counterproductive attitudes and practices. A major goal of implementation is to reverse ingrained behavior in nonthreatening ways.

*"We are developing a school improvement plan. The focus is limited to one factor: YOU!"*

Delinquency prevention works in settings beyond those designed exclusively for anti-social youth. In part, the notion that schools should ostracize alienated students reflects a negative and uninformed view of their potential capabilities, much like attitudes toward learning-disabled students. The challenge, therefore, is to alter perceptions throughout the school and community, and to encourage reasonable expectations for all students to succeed.

Traditionally, schools have been unable to respond organizationally to misbehaving students. Teachers have lacked the skills to reach students whose needs are unclear. As the student population has become increasingly diverse, and as court decisions have established procedural safeguards for schools to follow in disciplining or segregating students, many schools have found it difficult to prove they can educate all their students.

The proliferation of alternative schools over the past two decades was one response to the belief that it was virtually impossible for large secondary schools to respond to the needs of students with special educational and social problems. But successful alternative education programs within larger schools, and some established outside the public school system, have provided excellent sites for testing methods of responding to the specialized

### *SCHOOL DEVELOPMENT PROJECTS REQUIRE VISION AND COMPREHENSIVE SUPPORT*

Patrick Montesano, research and development administrator with the New York Urban Coalition, reflected on lessons from the Coalition's Local School Development Project:

"The school community has a greater chance of success when it reaches consensus about a fresh vision of possibilities and changes the way they perceive and approach problems. But they also need comprehensive support. There was constant interaction between project staff and administrators and practitioners at *every* level.

"Superintendents met regularly with other superintendents involved in the same process; district managers received regular assistance from project staff. School principals got on-site support, contact with other principals, workshops, technical assistance and training to lead planning.

"Staff development was not haphazard, not solely ad hoc. We tried to make sure there was on-site follow-up—assistance to reinforce and refine what teachers and administrators learned."

problems of some students. Meanwhile, in the past 10 years, many large, urban high schools with diverse student populations have developed effective school environments that encourage learning by combining discipline, school pride, academic rigor, and sensitivity to individual needs. One common link between this type of school and the smaller, alternative school is that reforms in attitude, behavior, curriculum, and instruction pervade the entire school (Meade, 1983).

Implementation then, should include explicit community and school commitments that all those involved—not just a few specialists—share responsibility for implementing delinquency prevention. Teachers, counselors, and administrators in improved, comprehensive, urban high schools confirm that the educational principles applied in successful alternative schools are also applicable to larger schools as long as there is leadership, community, and school-wide consensus about aims and methods. Frequently, teachers speak of a family atmosphere and claim they would not teach anywhere else.

## Resolving Dilemmas

Plans represent a set of agreements for carrying out project strategies. Effective school improvement committees continually monitor, assess, adapt, and refine their original agreements to meet changing situations. In attempting to translate theory into practice throughout a school community, implementers experience four classic dilemmas (Miles, et al. 1980):

1. How can the committee adhere to the original program vision? How sacred is the plan? How much revision can occur to meet changing needs without distorting or unacceptably compromising the plan?

*"Today I learned that Mr. Dawson has some funny ideas about education."*

2. How can implementers resolve conflicts between tried and true solutions and untried and unproved innovations? When new approaches are not working as well or as swiftly as hoped, can staff resist turning to conventional responses, such as isolating disruptive students? How will implementers respond at the moment—inevitable in the development of any innovation—when nothing seems to be working, and skeptics say, "We told you so!"?
3. How can implementers avoid the common extremes of overdependence on, or opposition to, outside expertise? How can participants overcome fears that they or their colleagues do not know enough about effective schooling or school improvement stategies to take initiatives? How can implementers overcome suspicions that a model that has worked elsewhere will not be any better than addressing local circumstances with common sense?
4. How can the committee overcome resistance to feedback and systematic evaluation that imply the need for further change? How can implementers maintain a balance between staying informed enough to make necessary changes, on the one hand, and exhausting time and patience with incessant tinkering to adjust the course, on the other?

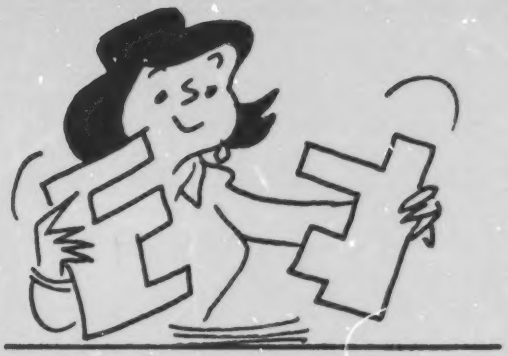
The inevitable dilemmas tend to focus on long-standing conflicts about academic standards, expectations, and discipline. It takes good communications skills, effective interaction patterns, and widely shared expectations to resolve such dilemmas. If necessary, implementers can arrange training for administrators and teachers, breaking down the barriers between them by emphasizing administrative leadership, staff collaboration, and public relations. With training, administrators and teachers can respond creatively to the tensions inherent in producing lasting institutional change.

## Managing Crises And Conflicts

The transition from planning to implementing any program often engenders conflicts. The Community Relations Service, U.S. Department of Justice (1977), has designed a comprehensive conflict management plan that may prove useful to delinquency prevention program implementers. Originally intended to assist school districts that must rapidly adjust their policies and practices to assimilate students of diverse ethnicity, the plan contains three phases: prevention, intervention, and resolution. The plan provides a variety of conflict management models that districts may adapt to local circumstances.

The plan contains essential factors and variables:

| *ESSENTIAL FACTORS* | *VARIABLES* |
|---|---|
| I. *Prevention* | |
| A. Attitudinal and environmental assessment—a survey of what staff and students perceive as negative or positive. | — District wide<br>— Building<br>— Self-survey forms<br>— Interviews of staff and students<br>— Community views |
| B. Contingency plans—a written document of conflict responses: who does what, under what circumstances. | — Emergency handbook<br>— Revision of manuals<br>— District resources<br>— Community resources |
| C. Multicultural education—inclusion of appropriate curriculum and activities in total school experience. | — Revised lesson plans<br>— Utilizing state resources<br>— Multicultural education inservice<br>— ERIC |



| | |
|---|---|
| D. Training—continuing inservice on conflict reducing strategies. | — Human relations<br>— Cross cultural communications<br>— Ethnic awareness<br>— Student workshops |
| II. *Intervention* | |
| A. Policy—to define roles and responsibilities of intervening in conflict | — Board initiated<br>— Superintendent initiated<br>— District/community effort |
| B. Conflict response instructions—a written document states specific roles and duties of intervenors and what types of conflict dictates such responses | — Intervention handbook<br>— Security response<br>— Building staff response<br>— Revised emergency handbook<br>— Police usage<br>— Other resource usage |
| C. Training—a program which encompasses humanistic conflict response which ensures safety for all | — Verbal/nonverbal techniques<br>— Security/instructional staff roles<br>— Conciliation training |
| III. *Resolution* | |
| A. Policy—to establish mechanisms to best resolve conflict | — Board or Superintendent<br>— Community/school district |
| B. District strategies—development of district wide activities that would maintain resolution | — Conciliation staff<br>— Student groups<br>— Out of district resources<br>— Community/district groups |
| C. Building strategies (Same as above but specific to the building) | |

(U.S. Dept. of Justice, 1977)

# Raising Standards and Expectations for Discipline and Achievement

State and local school boards across the country are insisting on higher standards ranging from increased requirements for graduation and grade promotion to improved course content. School leaders must help staff, students, and parents avoid confusing higher standards with higher expectations for learning.

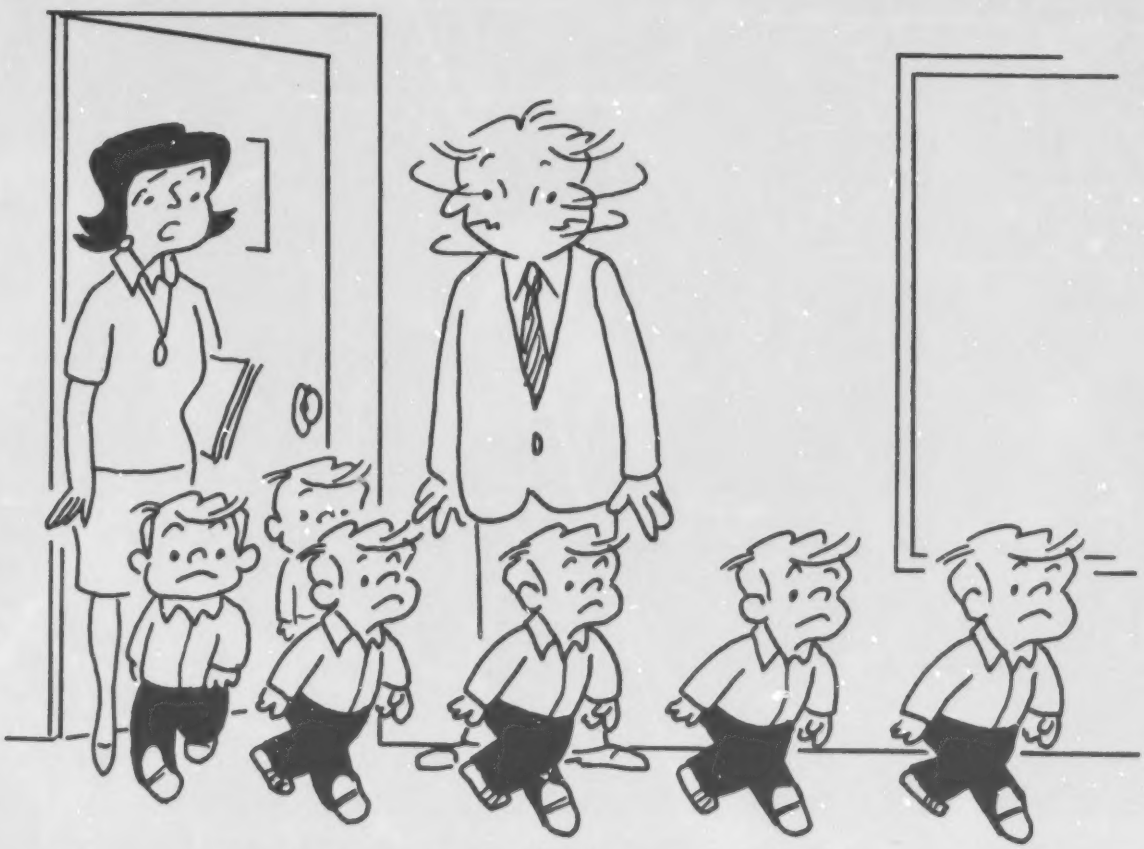
Standards and expectations differ significantly. An educational standard is an objective measure of performance, usually a requirement applied impersonally to a group. An educational expectation is a subjective criterion of performance, usually based on teachers' complex perceptions of what given students or classes are capable of accomplishing.

***"I worry that we are setting mechanical standards rather than addressing the real learning problems of the youngsters who will have to meet them."***

Harold Howe, II
Former U.S. Commissioner of Education

All students need clear expectations for achievement in basic skills. To avoid discouraging academically frustrated youth, higher standards must include enough options to allow students reasonable opportunity to meet the standards. A requirement that students complete three years of math, for example, does not mean that a student must pass calculus.

As the school climate and relationships improve, teachers and students may need to alter their expectations of each other. Higher standards may result in more effective teaching and learning.



***"Sometimes I think we rely too much on standardized tests!"***

Successful delinquency prevention programs raise both standards and expectations for students' performance by engaging students in active learning. Those who make reasonable efforts can succeed at challenging tasks that are meaningful to other people, as well as to the students themselves.

All students, especially those at risk, need realistically high expectations that they, their teachers, and their parents believe are attainable. Individualized instructional approaches, such as mastery learning (see Part II), which monitors individual progress and features a systematic teach-test-reteach sequence, have demonstrated extraordinary success. All students can master basic behavioral and academic skills. High school students can learn employment skills and can prepare for adult responsibilities, while performing academic classwork. Younger students can acquire skills that will allow them to make steady and satisfactory progress all the way through high school graduation. A range of strategies, approaches, and programs have successfully engaged youngsters in classroom learning by minimizing the frustration of individual competition and persistent failure.

***"If the team games are perceived by students as important activities, a peer reinforcement system usually will emerge. The "academic heroes" of the day will come to receive more and more praise and adulation by their peers as they lead their groups to victory in group games and tournaments."***

Wilbur R. Brookover
*Creating Effective Schools*

## Overcoming Discouragement And Failure

Part II of this guide provides an annotated catalogue of promising strategies and proven models focusing on school organization, curricula, instructional methods, student involvement, and school-family and school-community relationships. The following examples of instructional methods demonstrate the potential for alternatives to the discouragement and failure that sometimes accompany conventional classroom techniques:

- Student Team Learning builds confidence and self-esteem among students with varied abilities. The approach reinforces efforts to perform academic tasks through cooperative rather than competitive learning arrangements. Students encourage each other to do their best and to help each other achieve.

***"We think that many discipline problems have their roots in the educational program. We do not meet individual needs as adequately as we should . . . [to] prevent students from becoming frustrated."***

Paul B. Salmon
Executive Director
American Association of School Administrators

***"It's a class management antique."***

- Proactive Classroom Management methods enable teachers to use alternatives to punishment and to teach students social skills and self-discipline.
- DISTAR is a highly structured system designed to teach disadvantaged elementary school youngsters basic reading and mathematics skills as efficiently as possible. Each child proceeds to master progressive components at a pace that brings a sense of success in learning.
- Mastery Learning and Interactive Teaching are related systematic instructional strategies based on the theory that all students can master learning tasks given sufficient time within appropriate instructional conditions.

## Building Social Bonds

Although differing in detail, the rules, regulations, and expectations for behavior in exemplary schools and programs share four characteristics. All are:

- Fair;
- Firm;
- Consistent; and
- Clear to students.

*"Alfred, I am patient and I do care about your future. Now, about those overdue book reports . . ."*

***"In our team, we have noted fewer progress reports having to be distributed and fewer disciplinary problems. There has been a higher percentage of positive attitudes amongst the students; kids really look forward to working on the teams. The project has given order and direction to what teachers understand intuitively to be good teaching practices."***

Mary Hogan, Instrucitonal Leader
McClure Middle School
Seattle, Washington (1983)
OJJDP School Enhancement Project

This is especially true when two students participate in establishing, maintaining, and enforcing them. Implementing effective prevention programs means involving students and staff as fully as possible in building consensus about the terms of the school community's social contract.

In defining, maintaining, and assessing standards and expectations for student behavior, school leaders may find it helpful to involve potentially alienated students. Participation in decision making can strengthen attachments to school staff, as well as to peers. Rewarding activities can build social competence, valued skills, commitment to the school community, and belief in the value of its personal, academic, and social resources.

Schools cannot educate youngsters unless they are present. This is one reason effective schools emphasize regular attendance and reserve suspension for those students who actively threaten other students, staff, or the overall school environment.

### *YOUTH JURORS REDUCE CRIME, COSTS, AND TIME*

Duluth, Minnesota: Since 1978, groups of 12 to 14 youth jurors have judged juvenile court cases involving vandalism, shoplifting, misdemeanor assault, possession of drugs or alcohol and hunting violations. The project teaches youth about the juvenile court system, reduces juvenile crime, and reduces costs and time required to deal with juvenile defendants.

The project selects and trains 156 area high school students annually through simulation of court procedures. The St. Louis County Probation Department provides a project supervisor and probation officers who act as hearing officers. A volunteer student intern manages the cases.

Jurors serve one day a week for three consecutive weeks, hearing six to ten cases daily and deciding sentences for youth who have admitted guilt. Offenders have a choice of judge or youth jury; most youth select the jury. Sentences usually combine conventional measures such as probation with financial and societal restitution and counseling.

Contact:
Michael Farrell,
Project Supervisor
Duluth Youth Jury
319 County Courthouse
Duluth, MN 55802

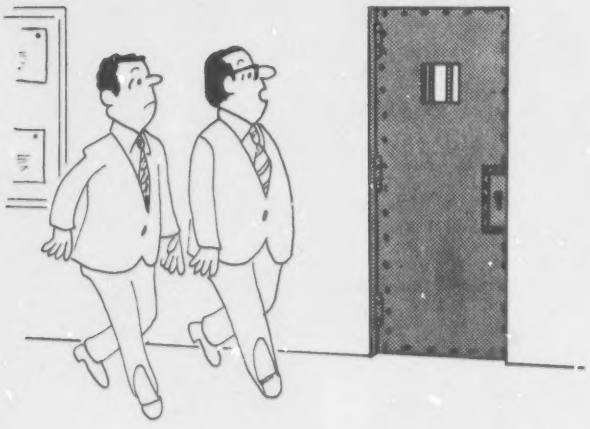
### Providing Alternatives To Suspension

The most prevalent alternative to temporary removal of students from school is in-school suspension. Practices vary, but effective ones exhibit several common features:

- Many schools have "Time-Out Rooms" or classrooms designated as in-school suspension centers, where students "cool off" or spend specified periods of time completing educational tasks under close supervision, usually by a specially trained teacher or counselor. Improving attitudes is a major objective of the enthusiastic staff, who actively attempt to develop rapport with angry and unhappy youngsters. Successful staff help youngsters identify and test methods of taking responsibility and developing self-discipline.
- Program staff agree on and publicize precise written guidelines defining procedures and appropriate circumstances for referral. These

statements portray assignment to the alternative program as a way to prevent suspension, not as a form of suspension itself, and emphasize face-to-face discussions between staff and parents, including home visits, if necessary. Hayes Mizell (1979) states: "It is vital for parents to know as much as possible about why their child is in the alternative program and what the program is trying to do for the student."

- The school community closely governs and monitors procedures for assignment, requiring for example, that referrals be documented. Records must describe precipitating incidents or behaviors, the efforts to identify and resolve problems before referrals, and written suggestions for addressing problems. Routine procedures guarantee the due process rights outlined in Goss v. Lopez, 419 U.S. 565 (1975), including telling students the bases for recommendations and allowing them opportunities to present another view.



*"That's our in-school suspension center."*

***"Carefully explained rules should be firmly enforced in school and classroom. Thus we prove to the child that he learns to become responsible, a care that he interprets as love. However, enforcement should not be by punishment, sarcasm, or ridicule—only by reasoning, removal of privileges, and ultimately by separation from the group for short periods of time during which plans can be made to correct the problem. We must never give up: neither teacher nor child can accept failure as a reasonable consequence."***

Dr. William Glasser
*Schools Without Failure*

***ACADEMIC CREDIT AND SUSPENSION***

***"Before the development of the NSBA resolution on disruptive students, much consideration was given to the loss of academic credit when children are not in school. This is one of the reasons why we have strongly urged local boards to develop these in-house programs . . . Our Educational Policy Services Division, in conjunction with our consulting services, does provide on-site technical assistance to school districts that are looking at the revision of their discipline codes. . . ."***

Dr. Crystal Kuykendall, former Director
Urban and Minority Affairs, NSBA

***"Obviously, if an individual who is not doing well in class is suspended or expelled, his possibilities for rejoining his class on the level at which he left decrease substantially with each day he is out of class. Certainly, treating children this way does not make sense."***

Mrs. Jean Dye, Vice President
National PTA

***"One of the great benefits [of alternatives to suspension and expulsion] is that the student is punished for disruptive behavi[illegible] . . . and is not punished by having his educational progress held back. Therefore we certainly would not be in favor of withholding academic credit."***

Paul Salmon, Executive Director, AASA

A staff person responsible for in-school alternatives screens referrals to determine whether they are necessary, whether they address the causes of problems, and whether the students should be assigned to the program.

- An assignment to in-school suspension clearly defines its duration. Three days or less usually suffices for resolving a problem. Any extension of the assignment requires a detailed review of progress, an explanation of proposed activities and services, and a statement of goals and objectives for the remaining time in the program.
- Reassignment to regular class may be the responsibility of the administrator, the room monitor, or the student, who writes a contract defining future behavior. Program staff, and sometimes a parent, cosign the contract.

- Designed to encourage learning, the center contains reference materials, textbooks, posters, and perhaps a lounge for informal conversation with other students and staff. School survival instruction gives the student strategies for learning, avoiding trouble, taking responsibility for behavior, and understanding the consequences of misbehavior. If misbehavior is a symptom of serious academic problems, the center should provide instructional materials designed for the students' academic level (Mizell, 1979).
- A follow-up process tracks student progress in regular classes. A standard form enables each teacher to respond daily. The student submits the forms to an administrator or other staff member at the end of each school day. Follow-up counseling sessions also help the student reflect on progress in solving problems. In order to capitalize on established rapport, students may contact in-school suspension staff on an emergency basis during the school day.

In summary, successful in-school alternative programs use clear rules and procedures, involve students in decisions, train staff to provide relevant materials, encourage involvement through special support curriculum, enhance communication, and encourage follow-up.

***HOUSTON'S STUDENT REFERRAL CENTER***

***"Our students are suspended for many reasons: truancy, classroom misbehavior, which can range from insubordination to getting into scuffles . . . not paying attention in class . . . smoking and tardiness.***

***"Over half of our students are one or more grades behind or have diagnosed learning disabilities. But many students have not been diagnosed, and so are not included in that analysis. We feel this is very basic to the problem of suspension. Since these children cannot perform academically, they become frustrated, and thus cause disruptions in the schools.***

***". . . Therefore we try to check carefully for symptoms of previously undiagnosed learning problems. . . . If we find them, we refer students to an agency for a complete battery of psychological tests and tests for different types of learning disabilities. After this, we try to get the children into an appropriate program for remediation."***

Ms. Lynn Pinkerton
Student Referral Center
Houston, Texas (NIE, 1979)

***"Mr. Wilson, I'd like to discuss referrals with you."***

***SATURDAY SCHOOL***

"The Littleton School District, with 17,293 students in Colorado, operates Saturday School as an alternative to suspension. 'Saturday School is proving to be an excellent discipline alternative,' says Gordon Brooks, assistant superintendent in instruction. 'It has helped tremendously in reducing absenteeism, and the recidivism rate is exceedingly low in this program. One session in Saturday School and the student is less likely to be absent from school again.' Parents choose between regular suspension and Saturday School and, according to Brooks, 'parent cooperation, which is essential to the program, is excellent.' A similar program is underway in several Florida school systems, including the St. Lucie County School District."

Jim Huge
NSBA's *Updating School Board Policies*
September 1983

## Selecting Staff—A Critical Task

Implementation of a delinquency prevention program begins with its most important component—staff. Although a number of factors contribute to the success of a program, the fundamental factors, such as school climate and reasonable expectations, reflect the behaviors and attitudes of teachers and administrators.

Studies of effective schooling focus on the most distinctive characteristic of schools—the people who comprise them. In her recent study of six good, but very different, high schools, Sara

*"Jordan, I know I can count on you to play a key role in making this program work!"*

Lawrence Lightfoot (1983) concluded they shared such elements as good teachers and support by sympathetic leadership. She states, "Good schools are ultimately dependent on good teachers—smart and inspired people who have something to teach." In effective schools the quality of teacher-student relationships is high (Berman & McLaughlin, 1978; Fullan and Pomfret, 1977; Gottfredson and Daiger, 1979).

### Choosing Outstanding Staff

Selecting top-notch staff to work with alienated, disaffected youngsters is a crucial feature of successful programs and schools. In discussing the qualities it takes to operate an in-school alternative program, Hayes Mizell emphasizes that staff should exhibit:

- Desire to work with the program;
- Desire and demonstrated ability to work with children who have problems;
- Ability to relate well to youngsters with a variety of class and cultural orientations;
- Interest in identifying and solving real problems rather than merely responding to or modifying misbehavior symptoms; and
- Patience, caring, and commitment to students.

Prospective staff must be "able to communicate with troubled students, to have strong diagnostic and instructional skills, and to have the energy and imagination to utilize a variety of school and community resources to help solve problems" (Mizell, 1979).

### Demonstrating Leadership

The commitment of outstanding staff to delinquency prevention is the most significant indication of a school's priority and is an excellent way for a principal to demonstrate leadership as implementation begins.

A principal exerts leadership by:

- Displaying commitment to the delinquency prevention concept from the outset;
- Clarifying participants' roles and responsibilities;
- Protecting staff by dealing with internal hazards and external pressures;
- Obtaining necessary resources;
- Actively participating in program activities; and
- Providing social supports.

***TEACHERS OF ALL KIDS NEED MORAL SUPPORT***

***"Staff need strokes too! Much of that is provided by kids. A lot of our graduates come back, just drop in. We keep in contact with our kids. One of the problems that teachers have is that their work with students doesn't provide enough feedback. It's one of the problems inherent in education, and it's even more serious when you work with high risk kids."***

Ken Osvold, Principal
St. Paul, Minneapolis School System

### Learning From Experience

Staff members committed to preventing delinquency must unlearn old roles and learn new ones. Accepting responsibility for implementation means learning from one another on the job. It means making time for frequent interaction to discuss classroom problems and successes in a non-threatening climate; breaking down the barriers that tend to isolate educators; and interacting with planners and consultants to adjust the program, if necessary (Fullan and Pomfret, 1977; Little, 1982).

Those who implement a new curriculum, method of instruction, or organizational scheme benefit from the practical support of enthusiastic people who know from experience that the new approaches can work—and who know *how* to make them work. These advocates help resolve tension between skeptics and proponents of innovation.

Seasoned enthusiasts spark planning and implementation in two ways: (1) by generating interest and excitement among prospective staff and other participants, including students; and (2) by providing specific, detailed information about the concepts underlying proposed practices. (See Part II of this handbook for promising strategies and information about reaching people who have made them work.)

## Securing Funds and Other Resources

In recent years, most research and development efforts in school-based delinquency prevention have received financial support from the federal government, including the Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention, E.S.E.A. Titles (now Chapters) I or VI, or matching federal and state funding. Reductions in federal and state funding for delinquency prevention and related projects have forced implementers to seek alternate sources of support and technical assistance.

### Getting By On Existing Funds

Many strategies for delinquency prevention do not require extra funds. Local schools and school districts often can implement delinquency prevention efforts by reallocating existing funds or using them more efficiently. Administrators can, for example:

*"Mr. Green will now discuss 'Funding and Other Resources.' "*

***"Of the alternative schools today, half were started without any additional funding. You need the commitment more than you need the dollars. If you want to use not having dollars as an excuse, you probably don't want to do it anyway."***

Betty Jo Zandler, Principal
Pratt Continuous Progress School
Minneapolis, Minnesota,

- Retrain and reassign staff who previously administered punitive and isolating treatments of disruptive students;
- Allocate staff time for meetings to coordinate and assess school-wide strategies for delinquency prevention, such as reaching agreement about instructional policies, goals, and objectives;
- Enlist teachers with special skills, such as the ability to diagnose and treat learning disabilities, to assist other teachers in anticipating and preventing behavioral problems;
- Use staff to train volunteers; and
- Redefine counselors' duties to shift time away from class scheduling, for instance, and toward developing part-time jobs and work-experience opportunities for students.

### *COMPANY AWARDS BUILD SCHOOL MORALE*

Schering Plough consumer operations in Memphis recognizes outstanding students at Trezevant High School by presenting certificates to students for academic and attendance achievements. The company also provides specially needed materials, equipment, and tutors for students in grades 7-12 who have academic problems.

According to school principal Leon Turpin, "It has done a great deal to boost the morale of the students and faculty. There has been so much criticism of public education recently, but this program demonstrates the good things that are going on in the schools."

Turpin and other school officials agree that the company's interest has not only benefited students' grades, but their behavior as well.

"They have adopted a more mature attitude and seem to feel much better about themselves," he said.

## Seeking Support From Others

Nonetheless, modest amounts of extra funds may be necessary—to purchase equipment or materials, to hire part-time staff, or to support special evaluation. Efforts to obtain funds should include greater attention to local sources, such as corporations, community organizations, or school-based groups.

Corporate resources are available to many schools. Traditionally, most corporations have donated money to colleges and universities but have paid little attention to public schools. Recent development of school-business partnerships nationwide has generated corporate interest in finding ways to assist local schools. Although business contributions have not been primarily financial thus far, schools have received helpful commitments of time, energy, and the expertise of business employees.

## Linking Schools And Businesses

Delinquency prevention offers a natural school-business connection. One incentive for business support is the opportunity to improve the image of local public schools as well as that of the company in the community. Company officials are also eager to have a ready supply of literate and well-trained workers, especially for entry level positions. Working directly with schools may allow businesses to participate in developing or actually providing training. School officials should inform business leaders that delinquency prevention projects contribute directly to the social and economic vitality of the entire community, including the business climate. School boards whose membership often includes business people, usually welcome partnerships that involve other businesses, spread knowledge about the schools, and provide increased opportunity for school improvement.

Companies now support a range of projects that reinforce delinquency prevention strategies. Many strategies, such as work experience, involve external community resources, but a growing number of companies regularly bring community resources into the school. For example:

- Awards and public recognition for individuals and groups of students with perfect or improved attendance;
- Projects that build pride in the school, such as beautification campaigns, and support for choral groups and bands;
- Part-time jobs during the school year, work-study programs, career exposure, speakers, tours, and summer jobs;
- Supportive mentors—business employees who volunteer their time to reinforce the connection between school and work by advising and encouraging individual youngsters to stay in school or pursue particular career paths;
- Contributions and loans of equipment and materials that schools cannot generally afford to purchase and maintain;
- Loans of employees who volunteer to tutor and to help teachers and administrators keep curriculum, employment information, and equipment current with trends in local business and industry; and
- Training school staff to use new technology, and contributing computer time for training.

> ***"We're saying to business that you need our schools, you hire our graduates, and it is in your interest to get in there and have an impact."***
>
> Terry Chanche, Coordinator
> Business-School Partnerships, Houston

Business people are often willing to share their considerable expertise in implementing programs. Schools need to encourage small and medium-sized companies to help provide students with a broad range of work experience and career opportunities, and to help develop consortiums of companies to support pre-employment training.

## Tailoring Requests For Assistance

Schools should tailor requests to company interests when asking for technical assistance, use of facilities, resources or contributions of funds. Resource developers should:

- Identify needs clearly before approaching possible contributors;
- Study the company's annual reports to determine its interests;

- Clearly state potential benefits to the company;
- Make requests succinct and specific;
- Be prepared to justify expenditures for clearly identified objectives; and
- Explain how the school will measure the results of delinquency prevention activities.

### Consulting Policymakers

Local school-based committees should submit their resource development strategies to school boards and central office administrations for approval. State and local laws and policies may restrict the types and amounts of contributions public schools may receive. Laws may require, for example, that all grants be formally submitted, approved, and administered through a local education authority.

Equitable distribution of resources may also be an issue. New Haven, Connecticut, school officials have sought to require that resources raised by local school parent groups be distributed equitably among affluent and poor schools. The National PTA (National Congress of Parents and Teachers) has explicitly discouraged parent fund raising for local schools.

Several large school districts have organized district-wide school-business partnership programs. Generally, a person in the central district office coordinates the program, matching the needs and resources of schools, companies, organizations, and community agencies. Despite the publicity associated with large-scale efforts of this type in Chicago, Los Angeles, Dallas, and Memphis, most school districts are just starting to explore appropriate formal ties between schools and businesses. (See Part II.) Districts are advised to proceed gradually and concentrate on defining mutual interests, which certainly include delinquency prevention projects.

### Taking Initiatives

School boards and superintendents generally lead partnership initiatives. To become involved in planning and developing a delinquency prevention program, business officials need guidance in understanding how school and companies can mutually benefit from a partnership. Typically, superintendents of schools, presidents of school boards, or civic association members initiate discussions with business executives. Later, at the school building level, committees of school and business representatives agree on plans reflecting needs, resources, mutual interests, and concerns.

***PERCENTAGE OF PARENTS WHO COMMUNICATED WITH THEIR CHILD'S TEACHER IN THE FOLLOWING WAYS DURING ONE YEAR:***

| | |
|---|---|
| Memo from teacher | 83.6% |
| Talk to teacher before or after school | 79.3% |
| Conference with teacher | 63.6% |
| Handwritten note from teacher | 63.5% |
| Workshop at school | 41.0% |
| Called on phone by teacher | 40.5% |
| Visited at home by teacher | 3.7% |

Center for Social Organization of Schools
Johns Hopkins University (1983)

## Building Partnerships with Communities

An effective delinquency prevention program goes beyond school-business partnerships and involves the entire community. School officials across the country are reaching out to enlist support from parents, other interested adults, and law enforcement officials, as well as the business community.

## Involving Parents and Other Interested Adults

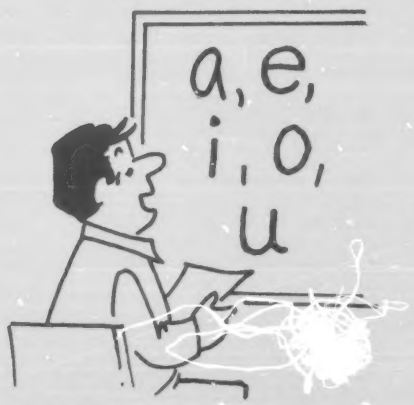
In the past, many mothers volunteered their services in their children's schools. Over time, as more women entered the labor force, parental involvement in the schools declined sharply. But, in many communities where a majority of households have no children in school, imaginative program implementers have successfully enlisted volunteers who have no direct connections to the schools. At the same time, implementers are reinforcing links between home and school. (See school-family strategies in Part II.)

Administrators sometimes use suspensions to force parents to come to school, so the staff may request their participation in joint efforts to address their children's behavior. Delinquency prevention program implementers have been focusing more directly on parental involvement in school affairs affecting their children. School personnel have developed several reliable strategies for promoting participation by parents and community members. For example:

- Program staff may enlist parents, non-parents, and senior citizens as tutors, aides, and volunteers in school libraries, cafeterias, or offices. Interested adults can learn basic tutoring skills in a few short sessions, and many senior citizens have proven to be skilled and reliable volunteers.

***"The message from parents is that parent involvement is first and foremost an activity that can be supported by just about all parents at home. . . . The message for teachers is that many parents help their children with or without the teacher's instruction or assistance, and many would benefit from directions or ideas from the teachers that could be useful to the child's progress in school."***

Joyce L. Epstein (1983)




***A GUT COMMITMENT TO BENEFIT CHILDREN***

***"Any program designed to improve the quality of education must be built solidly on a commitment, and I mean that—a gut commitment . . . to find new ways of involving parents in the schools. And more importantly . . . a commitment to develop respect, cooperation and understanding between parents and teachers. . . ."***

Former U.S. Rep. Shirley Chisholm
April, 1978

- A home-school coordinator—a school-based liaison between school personnel and students' families—can represent the interests of students and parents in school affairs. The coordinator also serves as a conduit to the school for information about community concerns. Guidance counselors, social workers, or teachers can fill the role.
- A council comprising the principal, teachers, parents, and community members can identify issues, set goals, and help solve problems collaboratively to prevent delinquency. The council can also promote consistency between school and home disciplinary policies and practices.
- Parent training enables parents to agree upon behavioral contracts. Although individualized programs may take longer, training usually requires group instruction, including supervised practice, for about 20 hours over a period of 2 or 3 months. Training should focus on local needs, such as communications and problem solving. Parent training requires high levels of participation, which schools can increase significantly by providing small stipends and other support strategies, such as networking, free childcare during training sessions, videotape feedback, and free materials for participants.

## Working with Law Enforcement Officials

As earlier chapters have observed, the problems of schools, particularly school safety problems, overlap with problems in the larger community. Law enforcement agencies and school officials are beginning to exchange expertise and information about strategies and programs to prevent delinquency. Some districts are even integrating security personnel in schools as part of comprehensive school climate improvement projects.

Schools are now encouraging proactive cooperation and increased understanding among students, their families, and community law

enforcement agencies. Police officers come into the schools to educate students at all grade levels about the legal system and to discuss individual and group responsibility. Law-related education classes provide opportunities for students to observe the legal system at work. Lawyers and bar association staffs help design law-related curriculum and act as guides and role models. Schools are inviting legal experts and security personnel to participate in all aspects of strategy planning and program implementation for delinquency prevention. In some cases law enforcement personnel work directly with families to help keep students in school. (See Part II.)

### Creating Long-Term Relationships with Business People

Business can contribute more than grants and funds. As interest in partnerships mounts over the next few years, school and community leaders should focus on ways to enlist corporate resources in delinquency prevention efforts from the outset. The goal is personally involving business people in long-term school-improvement campaigns. If company people participate in program planning, early development, and implementation, they develop a stake in successful results and come to understand the non-traditional education theories underlying the school's approach to preventing delinquency and improving discipline and school climate.

Commitment of people is more important than contributions of material resources. The most successful adopt-a-school programs, the best-known partnerships, emphasize personal involvement of company employees in local school affairs. Top level management takes the lead in generating interest and involvement throughout the company. Business people encourage youth to become more actively involved in school activities, to identify more closely with school, and to understand the link between school and successful adulthood.

- Students get first-hand reports from people in the real world outside the school—people whose views they respect. School staff report that company representatives often convince and inspire students by telling them the very same truths their teachers and parents have been telling them in vain for years.
- Community perceptions of the school improve, because corporate employees report accurate and positive information about students and teachers they meet in school projects. As these positive views surface in ceremonies, publications, and community grapevines, students gain a fresh appreciation of the value of school.
- A community network develops, uniting parents and concerned adults who are well-informed about school aims, methods, and needs. This network is a valuable resource for helping to engage students in constructive, school-related activities, such as community service, and for providing students intimate associations with positive adult role models.

### Linking Schools to the World of Work

Emphasizing private sector pre-employment and work exposure programs can speed youngsters' maturation. Until they gain direct experience, most youth have little understanding of expectations in the world of work. Learning to perform successfully in unfamiliar and demanding situations builds self-confidence and motivates youth to succeed in school. Working with businesses, schools can create educational opportunities for work experiences.

In Detroit, a pre-employment center created by General Motors, with support from the Ford, Burroughs, and Budd corporations, conducts six-week cycles of training for 140 students from local high schools in a simulated business-industrial setting. Teachers and administrators report that the attitudes and behavior of trainees change

remarkably in one month, with consistent improvements in punctuality, attendance, cooperation, and self-confidence.

The St. Louis Bar Association developed a network of volunteers to create a law-related curriculum, which included exposing students to lawyers, para-legal staff, judges, and others employed in agencies throughout the legal system. Numerous other bar associations and individual lawyers across the country have participated in designing and implementing law-related education programs.

The Boston business community and the school system have formed "The Boston Compact," a program designed to strengthen incentives for students to complete school. Companies have agreed to give first consideration to qualified Boston high school graduates when filling a specific annual percentage of entry-level jobs. Members of the Compact are designing ongoing support services to help the graduates succeed and advance in their jobs.

Work-study and cooperative education models offer many examples of settings in which students may succeed, despite mediocre academic performance. Cooperative education emphasizes pre-employment preparation through "world of work" classes, workshops, and skills training centers. In New York City more than 3,000 employers pay $25 million annually in wages to more than 15,000 public high school juniors and seniors who work in unsubsidized, private-sector, entry-level jobs. Seventy percent of the students are minorities, and almost all have members of their immediate families who are unemployed. New York staff believe the teaching, counseling support, and supervision of the cooperative education program "saves" countless students. Renee Sherline, the program's director, is so convinced of the educational value of well-designed work experience that she would eliminate all remedial education programs in secondary schools. By demonstrating the value of acquiring skills, a well supervised work-experience program motivates many students to improve their academic performance immediately.

***EXPERIENTIAL LEARNING***

"When students come here we treat them like an employee. They do have to study. They have to be able to use communication skills. They have to be able to use math skills. And I think it presents these skills to them in a way that they see where the need is important, rather than school situations where you are sitting in English class and saying 'I'm never going to use this', or math, 'I don't like having to do this'. But they find in the real world that you really do have to utilize these skills.

"The first students that call here in the fall are scared, but now towards the end of the school year, they have gained much more confidence. I think that these students could probably all go out on a job interview and perform much better than the ones just leaving high school that never had this experience."

Louis Ogletree, Business Supervisor
Tigard, Oregon
*Preventing Delinquency* (film, 1982)

Implementing work-experience programs requires:

- Teaching social skills necessary for basic employability and interviewing skills before referring students to companies;
- Making certain that students understand expectations and standards of employers, since most companies use identical procedures for evaluating the performance of youth and adult employees;
- Orientating company supervisors and other employees to the approach, goals, and objectives of the program, to program staff, and to the young people themselves;
- Exposing students to the complex functions of the total organization, exploring how departments relate to one another, what roles employees play within a department and in the company hierarchy, and how education, experience, further training, special skills, and performance operate as paths for advancement;
- Enlisting volunteer employee supervisors to act as mentors for students, to help them respond positively to feedback and evaluations of their performances and behaviors;

- Monitoring student progress and mediating problems through frequent discussions among staff, mentors, and other supervisors; and
- Enlisting employers for advisory committees that assess the progress of the program, identify emerging job opportunities and pre-employment training requirements, and publicize the benefits of the program among other employers and the community.

Business representatives welcome opportunities to learn how a company can directly assist school-based delinquency prevention. Here are four of the many workable approaches to developing partnerships for preventing delinquency:

1. Create a joint school-business curriculum for work-study programs and summer jobs, combining academics and skills that are in demand locally, such as general business practices and specific elements of insurance or banking. As a result of contacts and recommendations developed in the program, students who successfully complete the course can probably expect a job upon graduation. Experience-based Career Education curriculum (described in Part II) progresses from career exposure in the 10th grade to work-study programs that build marketable skills in the senior year. One program goal is to prevent students from dropping out of school by providing them frequent, varied, and sustained experiences that link school to the world of employment.
2. Increase expectations for youth by enlisting a company to train small numbers of high school students in skills usually taught to graduates of high school or technical school. The training may occur at the school or on the company site. Candidates for such training must have motivation and positive attitudes, but counselors and peers may recruit able students who have not responded well to other approaches.
3. Create career-related clubs whose advisors are volunteering company employees. In Memphis, Federal Express has produced a manual for company "consultants" who serve over a dozen such clubs in its adopted school. In Detroit, the Lawrence Institute of Technology and local companies support technical and business clubs in 14 schools, motivating minority and female students to pursue careers traditionally pursued by white males. Minority and female role models act as employee lecturers and worksite guides. Admission to the clubs is open to any interested student who enrolls in a math or science course and whose minimum grade point average is 2.5 (C+). A counselor or teacher, however, may waive the grade requirement to encourage potentially able but academically unmotivated students.
4. Provide teachers and administrators with summer work internships at companies. Teachers and administrators in vocational schools throughout Kentucky have received academic credit and their regular rate of salary to attend four-week internships that provide in-service vocational training.

The key to implementing successful work-experience programs is a committee of educators and business representatives whose responsibilities include:

- Assuring that the project meets teachers' training needs; and
- Soliciting participation by other companies, especially small and medium-sized ones.

When projects have grown to include several schools and companies, a consortium of companies may hire a full or part-time coordinator. The job demands skills in working with people in both business and education to solve the communication problems inherent in large programs.

## Gathering Information for Gauging Progress

Especially during a period of scarcer resources for public education, successful delinquency prevention depends on systematic monitoring and careful documentation of results. Such evaluation enables staff to present cogent arguments to justify continuing or expanding a program. Evaluation also generates additional support and credibility within the school community; builds resources for advocating preventive approaches to discipline, instruction, curricula, and school management; assists future planning efforts; and identifies program strengths and weaknesses for improvement efforts.

***WORK EXPERIENCE***

"The students have been very delighted about the program. This gives them an opportunity to not only be exposed to one health career, but as they come in we cycle them through many many departments. Some of them have been exposed to as many as seven professional career departments where they've had an opportunity to see what the professional person does day in and day out, to see what the workload is really like, what the responsibility is, and at the same time giving them an opportunity to ask questions they desire to have answered."

Dwight Harshbarger
Northwest Hospital
Seattle, Washington
*Preventing Delinquency* (film, 1982)

***"My parents are not satisfied with just me and my two sisters. Now they've gone and adopted a whole school."***

# Bibliography


Berman, P., & McLaughlin, M. W. (1974). ***Federal programs supporting educational change, Vol. VII: Factors affecting implementation and continuation.*** Santa Monica, CA: Rand Corporation.

Brodinsky, B. (1980). ***Student discipline: Problems and solutions.*** Arlington, VA: American Association of School Administrators.

Dunivant, N. (1982). ***The relationship between learning disabilities and juvenile delinquency.*** Williamsburg, VA: National Center for State Courts.

Fullan, M., & Pomfret, A. (1977). Research on Curriculum implememtation. ***Review of Educational Research***, *47*, 335-397.

Gottfredson, G. D., & Daiger, D. C. (1979). ***Disruption in six hundred schools*** (Report No. 289). Baltimore: Center for Social Organization of Schools, Johns Hopkins University.

Grant, J., & Capell, F. (1983). ***Reducing school crime: A report on the school team approach.*** Nicasio, CA: Social Action Research Center.

Lightfoot, S. L. (1983). ***The good high school.*** New York: Basic Books.

Little, J. W. (1982). Norms of collegiality and experimentation: Workplace conditions of school success. ***American Educational Research Journal***, *19*, 325-340.

Meade, E. J., Jr. Testimony before the U. S. House of Representatives Committee on Education and Labor, Subcommittee on Elementary, Secondary and Vocational Education on June 27, 1983.

Miles, M.B., Fullan, M., & Taylor, G. (1980). Organizational development in schools: The state of the art. ***Review of Educational Research***, *50*, 121-183.

Mizell, M. H. (1979). Designing and implementing effective in-school alternatives to suspension. In A.M. Garibaldi (Ed.), ***In-school alternatives to suspension*** (pp. 133-150). Washington, DC: National Institute of Education.

National School Public Relations Association. (1977). ***Alternative Schools: Why, What, Where, and How Much.*** Arlington, VA: Author.

Shoemaker, J., & Fraser, H. W. (1981). What principals can do. ***Phi Delta Kappan***, *63*, 178-182.

U.S. Department of Justice. (1977). ***School security: Guidelines for maintaining safety in school desegregation*** (Stock No. 027-000-00781-3). Washington, DC: Author.

Weis, J, G., & Hawkins, D. (1981). ***Preventing delinquency: The social development approach.*** Washington, DC: Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention.

CHAPTER 5

# Gauging Progress

**Public education has** entered an exciting phase in which all schools may begin moving systematically toward academic excellence. Despite pessimistic reports and news stories about the state of public schooling, the latest evidence is encouraging: reading scores and academic standards are rising, and schools are finding solutions to the disciplinary problems of recent years.

Although confidence in the schools remains at low ebb, school leaders can be thankful that the public is no longer apathetic. In response to major reports on the serious problems facing the nation's schools, the public is demanding policy changes and increased funding to improve the quality of public education. As this handbook has demonstrated, improving school safety and discipline is fundamental to enhancing the learning climate. Most importantly, the public is insisting on accountability to ensure that investing resources in school improvement will pay dividends.

The success of school-based delinquency prevention programs has demonstrated that public schools can improve systematically in *any* community. Prevention strategies complement broad-based, sustained efforts toward school improvement by providing:

- Leadership at the school district, building, and classroom levels;
- Curriculum and instruction, especially in the basic skills, both in classrooms and in work settings;
- Improved school climate, including safety and discipline, through effective and cooperative teaching techniques, strict but fair enforcement of rules, and rewards for participating in school and learning activities;
- Involvement and support of parents and the community at large, including law enforcement agencies and judicial institutions.

Neither the public nor the education community fully recognizes the implications delinquency prevention programs hold for changing school organization, curriculum, and instruction. Consequently a major priority of any delinquency prevention effort must be to document progress, not only to ensure continued support for the program, but also to elevate the discussion about improving public education. Educators should capitalize on the opportunity to focus public attention on fundamental issues of long-range school improvement. At the same time, school leaders should view evaluation as a means for better decision making.

***"We are facing some pretty perplexing, interesting times. Some people see them as disasters. Some people see them as opportunities for the future. Whichever way you look at it, you can just about bet that we are going to get through it best if we create the most capable, adaptable generation of young people we can."***

Tom Bird
*Preventing Delinquency* (film, 1982)

*"He's focusing attention on the issue all right."*

This chapter discusses the importance of evaluation to all members of the school community, then contrasts several types of evaluation approaches. These include formal research, assessment, and monitoring. The chapter discusses the importance of rigorous methodology and the need to consider the purpose of an evaluation before selecting the approach. The discussion then turns to the relationship between the school community and the evaluator and suggests ways evaluators can make their reports more helpful.

***ELEMENTS OF A COMPREHENSIVE EVALUATION PLAN***

1. Purposes and audiences for evaluation;
2. Project objectives;
3. Questions to be asked;
4. Strategies to be used;
5. Instruments to be obtained or developed;
6. Assignment of roles and responsibilities;
7. Procedures for data collection, analysis and reporting; and
8. Timeline: Who will do what and when.

(Northwest Regional Educational Laboratory, NWREL, no date)

# Who Needs Evaluation?

School leaders do not need reminding that the schools and districts they serve are, like all institutions, political. Those responsible for evaluating a school safety and delinquency prevention program must be sensitive to the evaluation's potential effect on the school community. One precaution is to seek broad agreement about the design and uses of the evaluation. The evaluators themselves, for example, should participate in meetings to specify program objectives. All groups that have, or may have, a stake in the results need access to the evaluation process.

For example:

- School boards need information for deciding whether to continue delinquency prevention programs. In view of competing and related priorities, board members need to know whether programs achieve their stated goals. Apart from cost considerations, do the results justify claims that delinquency prevention should be a school district priority?
- Superintendents and other managers may want to know whether program procedures are cost-efficient, particularly in the use of personnel. Is one program strategy more economical than another? Are all program elements essential? If not, which are most important?
- Principals may be most interested in whether the programs are effective. To what degree have the programs solved the original problems?

*"An evaluator must determine who is making the decisions and keep the information needed by the decision makers as the highest priority."*

Dean Nafziger
Northwest Regional Educational Laboratory

- Program managers may want to know about process as well as effectiveness. What can strengthen links between program components? Were all procedures appropriate and adequate? What adjustments are necessary?
- Teachers with day-to-day responsibility for program tasks need information to determine whether the tasks further the aims of the program. Do classroom observations show increased cooperative learning, or are teachers still lecturing most of the time? Are rewards varied and based on improvement as planners agreed?
- Individual students may want to know exactly how far they have progressed toward specific goals and objectives. This is particularly true for students who are attempting to build a record of competence, in addition to academic grades or a diploma, that will demonstrate skills and reliable work habits to potential employees.

## What Kind of Evaluation

There are many ways to gather information that supports decision making at all levels. Three common types are formal research, assessment, and monitoring.

***Formal research*** can assist decision making as well as increase the quality of knowledge in a field. Classical research studies, which examine the causes of outcomes, require the rigorous control of true experiments in order to justify scientific claims. There are two categories—process and impact evaluation.

A *process* evaluation documents program components, such as staff activities and procedures, analyzing their quality, appropriateness, and adequacy according to specific objectives. For example, if one objective is to involve all students in cooperative classroom learning, records of the number of students participating would reveal what proportion was involved. Numbers alone, however, would not reveal the quality of participation; interviews, questionnaires, and observations would

*"[With] action research . . . [d]ecision makers and researchers collaborate through a continuing dialogue in which researchers provide feedback on the consequences of project action."*

Gary Gottfredson
Johns Hopkins University

provide that information. Additional analysis could determine whether the instructional strategy was adequate. Evaluators might compare specific behavior, such as performance of assigned tasks and students' statements about their ability to achieve academic goals against similar yardsticks in another group.

An *impact* evaluation attempts to measure the outcomes of specific activities against stated goals in order to determine causes. To learn whether a school-within-a-school improves attendance, for instance, evaluators would compare and contrast attendance figures before and after the students entered the new setting. The evaluators might also examine the attendance of a random comparison group.

Impact evaluation data is like a snapshot. It can provide candid insight, but is by no means a formal portrait. School leaders should not decide whether to continue, terminate, or expand programs on the basis of impact evaluation alone.

Rigorous methodology helps build trust. Evaluation research findings can profoundly affect programs and individuals. Even for professionals with the best intentions, self-criticism is difficult. Third-party criticism can be threatening unless it is invited, offered, and accepted as collegial feedback. Program planning can anticipate and accommodate defensive reactions to unfavorable results. People often react defensively by challenging inferences about causes and effects. As a result, those who design and implement evaluation research need

***"Evaluation is a demanding social craft, one which requires maximum human contact. Any evaluator who withdraws from on-going activity and examines the program results solely through second-hand accounts, almost certainly biases the findings."***

John Van Maanen
*The Process of Program Evaluation*

sufficient expertise and knowledge about the areas under investigation so that their findings cannot be dismissed.

Methodology can be sound without being unduly complicated. But, formal process or impact evaluation is not always feasible. Research expertise may be unavailable or too costly, for example. Maintaining a rigorous experimental design in the complex school setting sometimes proves impossible: teachers and students may transfer; control group teachers may be reassigned to teach in comparison groups; principals may change; researchers may find teachers, students, and parents reluctant to share information they feel is confidential.

Successful evaluation research conducted in public schools depends on three ingredients:

1. Staff committed and trained to gather information rigorously, systematically, and objectively;
2. Professional evaluators trained to design studies, identify appropriate instruments and methods, and direct all technical matters. The credibility of researchers is critically important, and hiring professional evaluators requires understanding the evaluation process; and
3. Project designs, integrated into overall program plans, emphasizing the importance of establishing trust. One way to enhance trust is to seek broad consensus about selecting evaluators and about determining priorities, expectations, target groups, methods of investigation, and forms of reporting.

Perhaps because public schools do not offer laboratory-like conditions, highly promising and generally successful delinquency prevention or school improvement efforts have not yielded as much solid evidence as expected. Nonetheless, inferences based on anecdotal evidence, interviews, and observations—while inconclusive—are extremely helpful for improving program design and operation.

Although information-gathering is commonly called evaluation, much of it is not, strictly speaking, formal evaluation research. Nor does it always need to be. In many circumstances, assessment or monitoring suffice.

***Assessment*** determines the amount of an activity, resource, or need. As Chapter 3 explained, assessments may use existing data or gather new information to identify and weigh unmet needs. Mini-Audit instruments for analyzing school climate factors, for example, help faculty and administrators establish program priorities. Subsequent administrations of the "mini-audit" can provide post-intervention information about how the school community perceives the extent of improvement and remaining need.

***Monitoring*** compares actual events with program plans. By collecting specific information about program operation, managers can analyze whether activities are both appropriate and within cost limits.

For efficiency, school leaders should consider choosing from the diverse array of existing instruments for assessing, monitoring, or evaluating programs. Information about materials is readily available from the National School Safety Center, the National Diffusion Network, the National Center for the Assessment of Delinquent Behavior and its Prevention, state departments of education, universities, and private agencies and organizations specializing in research and evaluation.

Evaluators also can design site-specific instruments, but the advantages and disadvantages outlined in Chapter 3 for needs assessments apply equally to evaluation tools. Moreover, interpreting the data may require additional special expertise.

***"Yes, we want rigorous information gathering, but this is ridiculous."***

# Uses of Evaluation

Decisions about what type of evaluation to use for measuring progress depend on the evaluation's purpose. For example, in order to determine whether the program was implemented as planned, decision makers may need only a simple report describing what happened. Further information would undoubtedly be useful, however, the priority may be to keep the effort on track, particularly in the early stages of program development. Evaluations of federally funded programs confirm this principle; the most common reason for negative outcomes is failure to implement programs fully from the outset. Assuming that a particular set of activities is a valid approach to accomplishing the stated goals and objectives, systematic monitoring should provide sufficient information for determining whether the program design has been carried out as intended.

Attention is increasingly focusing on strategies for assisting schools to improve systematically. Where comprehensive school planning involves all segments of the school community, several approaches to school improvement are feasible. To improve communication and promote further planning, evaluations should concentrate on the school improvement process as well as on specific outcomes, such as reading scores, which are the kinds of results of most interest to the public. Implementers may be more interested in assessing progress and identifying remaining needs, however policy makers need to be informed of the specific causes of success.

### *TEACHER TRAINING*

"The evaluators found that teachers were sometimes using low grades as punishment for bad behavior. Program managers used this finding to point out the ineffectiveness of this approach and how poor grades only increased a student's sense of alienation and tendency toward delinquency. Instead, they encouraged teachers to deal with misbehavior more appropriately and not withhold rewards for academic performance and individual achievement."

Linda Shalaway (1983)

### *THEORY-BASED EVALUATION CAN IMPROVE PROJECT EFFECTIVENESS*

Projects will increase in effectiveness under evaluation pressure. This pressure takes many forms, the most important of which are:

- Pressure to focus on theory in examining organizational behavior;
- Pressure for knowledge potentially useful to the organization;
- Pressure from "personal knowledge" or experience;
- Pressure from the rigorous, theory-based evaluation of intervention components;
- Pressure from the rigorous, theory-based evaluation of projects as a whole;
- Pressure from feedback about steps taken to adopt an innovation; and
- Pressure from steps taken to implement an intervention.

(Gottfredson, 1982).

### *HOW SCHOOLS IMPROVE*

"A better school . . . is one that defines and periodically redefines important outcomes, while continuously striving to improve its contributions to those outcomes. As staff gather and analyze evidence about the strengths and weaknesses of various programs, the need for improvement becomes evident. Alternatives are identified, outcome-oriented criteria are applied, and selections of programs are made. Sometimes the present program is continued, other times adjustments to the program are engineered, and still other times totally new programs are adopted or adapted."

(Temkin, McCann, and Connolly, 1977).

Evaluation research has expanded during the past decade in response to mandates for evaluating federally funded programs. As a result, much research has examined conceptual and methodological issues in evaluation studies. Such issues include valid measures of program failure or success, random sampling for treatment (or experimental) and control groups, and external factors affecting program outcomes. This growing body of research has considerably advanced the state of the art of educational evaluation and has highlighted the need to involve local participants in its design and implementation.

Significant educational change related to delinquency prevention often occurs at the local school level. Because local decision makers need to emphasize building a climate of understanding and support for evaluation, they should determine whether evaluation clearly addresses specific needs and interests in local schools.

*"Do you have a get well card for a program manager who freaked out trying to explain the uses of evaluation?"*

*"I've been trying to get a concensus on school discipline."*

In considering evaluations, the most important task at the local level is to determine exactly who is interested in undertaking the expense and effort of an evaluation and why. The basic questions are:

- Who would use the results of an evaluation?
- For what purpose would findings be used?

Designing an evaluation should begin at the program's inception because of the need to decide what to measure, how to measure it, and how to use the information collected. Once the delinquency prevention committee, or school improvement committee ranks program objectives and states them in objectively measurable terms, the process of designing the evaluation can begin.

Focusing on how to use evaluations crystalizes the committee's aims and expectations for the program. The committee and the evaluator must agree on definitions and priorities, target groups, and reasons for collecting certain kinds of information rather than others.

Reaching consensus to formulate the question precisely is the most critical pre-evaluation decision, for it is the reference point for all subsequent decisions. Reaching this point requires asking and answering the following preliminary questions:

- Is it clear what the program is trying to accomplish?
- Has the committee specified the means for achieving program aims?

- Has the committee defined criteria for organizing and interpreting data, such as delinquency rates and self-reports of delinquency or misbehavior?
- Has the committee agreed which objectives are most interesting? Most important?
- Who is the audience for the evaluation?
- Are the purposes of the evaluation clear and acceptable? Whose support is necessary? Has the committee obtained it?
- Whom will the evaluation serve? What is its value base? Is it value free? Does it embrace several values? Are these explicit and fully understood?

There are two common uses for evaluation, usually called summative and formative. Summative evaluation ascertains final outcomes. Formative evaluation, essential in the early phases of a program, identifies changes that may improve a program's structure or operation. Formative evaluation requires measurement of both process and impact. Decisions to adjust program components to improve outcomes depend on understanding how processes relate to results. Emphasis usually shifts toward summative evaluation as the operational bugs are worked out and the program achieves stability.

Decisions about who will perform an evaluation, and to whom that person or group will report, should reflect consideration of who can best use evaluation results. Unless the committee takes care to balance conflicting viewpoints, one group's concerns may predominate. For example, where

***CRITERIA FOR ESTABLISHING PRIORITIES AMONG INFORMATION USES***

1. Is the evaluation of this objective or program area required by federal, state, or local guidelines?
2. Is this objective or area central to the success of the project?
3. Will the information gathered be of importance to project decision makers?
4. Has this or similar information already been collected? (If yes, do we need to address the same issue again?)
5. Has the project been in operation a sufficient length of time to warrant evaluating this area at this time?
6. Do we have (or can we obtain) sufficient expertise to adequately evaluate this area?

(NWREL, no date).

*"And now to present his point-of-view on school maintenance . . ."*

those concerned primarily with program details shape the evaluation's focus, the board may not get the information it needs for making policy decisions.

These matters should surface early in the process. The very decision to conduct an evaluation may result in program improvements by stimulating staff and managers to examine neglected issues and possibilities for clarifying program aims and operations. In addition, preliminary decision making provides opportunities to assess the rapport of the participants with the evaluator—a crucial factor in determining the amount and quality of information the evaluation is likely to yield.

***FROM BLUEPRINT TO CONSTRUCTION***

In building a house, the preparation of a blueprint occurs after preliminary discussions regarding costs and the general needs that the house is to serve, but before the actual construction of the foundation and walls. In a similar way, the evaluation plan . . . should be prepared after preliminary policies have been established but before the data collection has begun.

(NWREL, no date).

***EVALUATING STAFF REFERRALS TO IN-SCHOOL SUSPENSION***

**Q:** [You] spoke of evaluative criteria only in terms of the student. Is there some evaluation of the staff also?

**MR. HAYES MIZELL:** I think you are right. . . . When you are compiling information on who has made the referrals, I think that in itself will be a kind of evaluation: Has Mr. Jones made 15 referrals and Mrs. Smith made none?

It would be helpful if there were some indication of how many teachers had in fact been worked with as a result of having made a referral. In how many cases did teachers make referrals when the student never got to the in-school suspension program—the "gatekeeper" decided this situation could be handled another way? Perhaps there then occurred some negotiation with the teacher, and that student was returned fairly and promptly to the regular classroom.

(NIE Panel Discussion on Alternatives to Suspension, 1978).

# Making Evaluations Useful

No matter how conclusive the research evidence may be, the evaluator must translate it into terms practitioners can understand and apply in day-to-day operations. Evaluators can make their reports more helpful by:

- Participating actively in planning and early program development to clarify objectives and establish scientifically acceptable conditions for research;
- Spending considerable time getting acquainted with school board members, program staff, students, and others as early as possible;
- Initially accepting participants' opinions and ideas at face value; listening with suspended judgment; learning how all the players operate;
- Being available at meetings to explain and discuss evaluation methodology and the design of the study and its intended and potential uses;
- Building trust with diverse participants, especially those who are most concerned about confidentiality in matters touching on delinquency, while maintaining the integrity of the study;

***A sudden drop in test scores.***

*"The theory says that if you keep applying evaluation pressure, the program will improve. It's a question of implementation. If these programs are implemented faithfully and systematically—and evaluation insures that they are—then the positive outcomes will be there."*

Gary Gottfredson

- Sharing preliminary results of questionnaires, interviews, observations, and reviews of program documents upon request, whenever it is appropriate to do so;
- Sharing tentative inferences about possible causes of program outcomes based upon data; and
- Guarding against conflicts of interest, but involving program staff in the process of formulating inferences.

Evaluators should provide analyses of results in several forms including oral presentations as well as formal reports, executive summaries and similar documents. Where parents and other members of the school community are involved, information should be available to them. Presentations and reports should be succinct and jargon-free, highlighting strengths, weaknesses, recommendations, suggestions, and further plans.

The key to successful evaluation is to integrate it into the school improvement effort from the outset. Although the particular approach to evaluation may shift as planning and implementation proceed, the need to gauge progress remains constant. The evaluation process can help the school improvement committee focus on its goals and objectives, fine-tune its prevention techniques, and document its success.

# Bibliography Chapter 5


Berman, P., & McLaughlin, M. W. (1974). *Federal programs supporting educational change: Volume VII: Factors affecting implementation and continuation.* Santa Monica, CA: Rand Corporation.

Center for Law and Justice. (1982). *Preventing Delinquency: A Social Development Approach* [Film]. Seattle, WA: Author.

Center for New Schools. (1972). Strengthening alternative high schools. *Harvard Educational Review, 42,* 336.

Fullan, M., & Pomfret, A. (1977). Research on curriculum implementation. *Review of Educational Research, 42,* 335-397.

Gottfredson, G. D. (1982). *Integrating basic research and evaluation: A method for testing theory in collaboration with program implementors.* Paper presented at the American Society of Criminology. Toronto, Canada.

Gross, N., Giaquinta, J. B., & Bernstein, M. (1971). *Implementing Organizational Innovations.* New York: Basic Books.

Lake, D. G., Giaquinta, J. B., & Earle, R. B., Jr. (Eds.). (1973). *Measuring human behavior: Tools for the assessment of social functioning.* New York: Teachers College Press.

Lofquist, W. (1983, November-December). Preventive measures. *The Grantsmanship Center News Letter.*

Mager, R. (1983). *Preparing instructional objectives.* Palo Alto, CA: Fearon Publishers.

Miles, M. B. (Ed.). (1964). *Innovation in education.* New York: Teachers College Press.

Northwest Regional Education Laboratory. *Experience-based career education implementation handbooks. Vol. 5: Program evaluation.* Portland, OR: Author.

Patton, M. Q. (1978). *Utilization-focused evaluation.* Beverly Hills: Sage Publications, Inc.

Schilit, H., & Lacey, R. (1982). *The private sector youth connection: Volume I: School to work.* New York: Vocational Foundation, Inc.

Taylor, B. L., & McAdams, J. A. (1975). Analyzing and improving implementation of a local educational program. *Training for leadership in local school improvement.* Philadelphia, PA: Research for Better Schools.

Temkin, S., McCann, R., & Connolly J. (1977). An assessment of the prospects for widespread school improvement. *Educational Technology,* 7.

Van Maanen, J. (1979, January-February). The process of program evaluation. *The Grantsmanship Center News Letter.*

# Conclusion

Part I of this handbook has demonstrated the close relationship between primary delinquency prevention and effective schooling. In the process of creating an ambience of safety and encouragement to overcome the alienation that disruptive or delinquent students generally experience, school leaders foster a climate that enhances learning for all students.

The public demand for higher academic standards is no greater than the demand for safe schools. Crime in the schools and juvenile crime, generally, are serious problems facing virtually every community in the nation. Each month, thousands of young people quit school without the skills to get jobs. As youth unemployment increases, so does youth crime.

Sooner or later, society pays the staggering economic and social costs of juvenile delinquency. As law enforcement officers readily point out, sooner is cheaper and better. Reaching young people before they feel turned off by education, can help them become productive members of society.

Although research indicates that punitive measures, such as suspension and expulsion, in many instances are counterproductive, discipline remains an essential tool for school improvement. In the past decade, court decisions have clarified the need for procedural safeguards for students' rights, but school officials retain broad authority for establishing and enforcing disciplinary policies. The key to successful discipline is balance and sensitivity, treating the disease as well as the symptoms.

The ability of teachers and administrators to control a school's environment is one factor that makes it the ideal setting for stopping delinquency before it begins. Not only can school personnel detect potential delinquency very early, but they have the authority and the capability to intervene. Schools are central to the lives of young people and can influence how they interact with their peers, employers, and family members. Schools can also directly affect a youngster's success, failure, social competence, self-esteem, and behavior. The school is the only formal institution that can address the whole range of problems, including substance abuse, youth unemployment, violence, vandalism, truancy, and detrimental peer and family relations. Because disruptive behavior interferes with teaching and learning, schools must intervene if they are to educate their students effectively.

Several theories have contributed to the state of the art in primary delinquency prevention. Learning Theory, which holds that delinquency is learned through associational processes, yields strategies that emphasize ways to reduce opportunities for associating with delinquents and to reward traditional values. Strain Theory, which holds that delinquency results from inability to adapt to the frustration inherent in any social institution, recommends strategies that provide students opportunities and rewards for success. Labeling Theory, which holds that delinquency results when youth adapt their behavior to negative labels, results in strategies that minimize labels in order to encourage commitment to achievement. Control Theory, which holds that people conform to traditional norms because of their bonds with home and school, leads to strategies that provide opportunities for positive experiences to foster the bonding process.

Current prevention strategies aim to change the way schooling is organized in order to eliminate practices that alienate young people. By exposing students to an array of positive experiences, to the world of work, to law enforcement officials, and to other adult members of the community, and by reinforcing conventional behavior patterns, educators can improve learning and discipline.

The Social Development Model integrates elements of bonding into the process of social development. Successful prevention programs structure school experiences to reinforce bonding by providing opportunities for students to participate in conventional activities; by teaching students the skills necessary to succeed in those activities; and by offering clear and consistent rewards and sanctions. Some of the key prevention strategies recommended include:

- Changing instructional methods to enable all students to have positive academic experiences leading to successful adult

opportunities. Techniques such as cooperative learning enhance academic achievement and also teach basic interpersonal skills that help students succeed in school and in the community.

- Involving students in the process of making school decisions to give them a stake in maintaining discipline and academic standards. Projects that promote skill development encourage student involvement in activities, such as governance, that improve student morale and behavior while teaching students how to interact successfully.
- Making curricula relevant to student needs. Developing and strengthening links between schools and community organizations can improve student behavior and lessen alienation through expanding opportunities for work experiences, role models, and mentors. Promoting community education can also develop wider access to services for youth and improve relationships between school and community.
- Providing law-related education classes. Teaching students about the law fosters social responsibility, personal commitment to justice, and participation in social order, and imparts critical thinking and decision-making skills. Naturally, schools must practice due process in order to teach it effectively.
- Collaborating with family, local, and state agencies in managing the educational process. A unified approach to educational expectations, communication, and problem solving provides stronger reinforcement for conventional behavior and bonding.

The tenets of primary delinquency prevention parallel the most recent findings of effective school research, which state that to be effective a school requires strong instructional leadership, high expectations for achievement for all students, an orderly and positive climate that supports learning, carefully developed curricula appropriate to student needs, and regular monitoring of student academic progress.

Part I has described a six-step process schools can follow to become safer and more effective: choosing the focus for change; assessing school strengths and weaknesses; setting goals and objectives for school improvement; developing an action plan; implementing strategies; and gauging progress. Parts II and III provide detailed strategies and resources that school leaders can turn to in their efforts to create better and safer schools.

All members of the school community have roles to play in the transformation:

*School board members* should set policies to encourage school practices reflecting current theory and knowledge of prevention. Board members should distinguish between primary prevention and conventional strategies, particularly in handling volatile matters such as disciplinary policies.

*Superintendents* should designate preventive approaches as administrative priorities in developing and monitoring curricula and instruction. In publicizing school improvement plans, superintendents should demonstrate commitment to long-range preventive approaches in order to underscore the role they play in educating all students.

*School principals* should exhibit "tender strength" in building consensus among faculty about curricular and instructional priorities and creating school climates that encourage faculty collegiality, as well as security and support for adults and students. As the ones responsible for day-to-day implementation of school-based prevention, principals are crucial to success.

*Teachers* should participate in planning and decision making for school improvements. They should foster an atmosphere of trust and encouragement and share what they learn as they practice delinquency prevention techniques.

*Students* should participate in school improvement efforts. Student leaders, including both conforming and nonconforming youngsters, should participate in decision making and planning, should foster cooperation among their peers, and should help to create climates where students themselves have higher expectations for academic and personal success.

*Parents and community members* should enhance long-range prevention efforts by becoming involved with the schools and the students, providing a link to the world outside. Business people should work with the schools to provide experiential learning that can help disaffected students remain in school and should support schools in preparing students to meet the opportunities and demands of high-technological society.

*Law enforcement officials* should work with the schools to educate students about the role of law enforcement in society.

Leadership at all levels can enhance school climates and academic achievement. The President of the United State has cast education, and particularly school safety, in the national spotlight as no other leader in the nation can. Regardless of whether one agrees with the President's specific comments and

positions, the task is to translate national concern into school improvement. School leaders should seek assistance from the President, the Congress, the governors, state legislatures, city and town halls, local business communities, labor leaders, and others. Indeed, national, state, and local associations of educators and other school staff should systematically communicate with leaders and the general public about what it takes to provide better and safer schools. School boards in particular have the power and the responsibility to play a vigorous role in these school improvement efforts, and now is the time to act!

***"Until one is committed, there is hesitancy,***
***the chance to draw back,***
***always ineffectiveness.***

***Concerning all acts of initiative***
***there is one elementary truth***
***the ignorance of which kills countless ideas***
***and endless plans:***

***That the moment one definitely commits oneself,***
***then Providence moves too.***

***All sorts of things occur to help one***
***that would never otherwise have occurred.***

***A whole stream of events issues from the decision,***
***raising in one's favor all manner of unforeseen incidents***
***and meetings and material assistance,***
***which no man could have dreamed would come his way.***

***Whatever you can do or dream you can,***
***begin it.***

***Boldness has genius, power, and magic in it.***
***Begin it now."***

Goethe

PART II

# PROMISING STRATEGIES

## Contents


**School Organization** 103
- Local School Development Project 104
- Operation Success 106
- Program Development Evaluation 107
- School Climate Improvement 108
- School Improvement Project 109
- School Team Approach Using Alcohol and Drug Abuse Education Program 111
- Schools-Within-A-School 113
- Social Literacy Training 115

**Instructional Techniques** 117
- Cooperative Learning (Johnson & Johnson Model) 118
- Student Team Learning 120
- Jigsaw I & II, A Cooperative Learning and Student Team Learning Technique 122
- Team Assisted Individualization, A Student Team Learning Technique 123
- Teams-Games-Tournaments, A Student Team Learning Technique 124
- Student Teams—Achievement Divisions, A Student Team Learning Technique 125
- DISTAR (Direct Instructional System for Teaching Arithmetic and Reading) 126
- Interactive Teaching 128
- Mastery Learning 129
- Ounce Classroom Management Program 131
- Proactive Classroom Management 132

**Curricula** 135
- Classroom Learning To Attain Social Skills 136
- Be A Hero—Stay Drug Free! 137
- Experienced-Based Career Education 138
- Law-Related Education 140
- Law In A Free Society 142
- Ombudsman: A Classroom Community 143
- Project S.E.L.F. (Securing Every Learner's Future) 144
- Work As A Topic Of Study 145

**Student Involvement** 147
- Alternative Pursuits Program 148
- Open Road Student Involvement Project—A Program of the Citizens Policy Center 149
- Peer Culture Development, Positive Peer Culture 151
- Peer Facilitation Program 153
- Youth Action Teams 155

**School-Family Relationships** 157
- Home-Based Reinforcement of School Behavior 158
- Home-School Coordinators 160
- Parents as Volunteers, Tutors and Classroom Assistants 161
- Relationship Enhancement Skill Training; Filial Enhancement Skill Training 163

**School-Community Relationships** 165
- Anti-Vandalism Projects 166
- Cooperative Vocational Education 168
- Officer Friendly Program 170
- School-Business Partnerships 171
- School-Community Advisory Councils 173
- School Site Management 175
- Times Square Truancy Outreach Project 176
- Young Volunteers in Action 178
- Youth Awareness Program 179

# Introduction to Strategies

**Ideas provide the spark** that initiate change. Ideas expand the possibilities and parameters of life and can make what seems an impossible task an accomplished reality. Often the best ideas combine imaginative genius with a hint of practical experience.

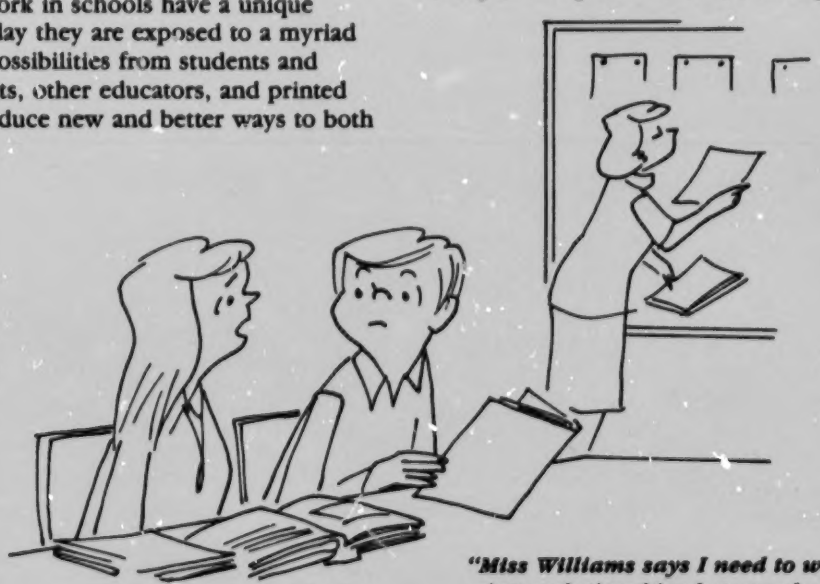
The purpose of this part of *Toward Better and Safer Schools* is threefold:

- To highlight significant ideas that have promoted change.
- To furnish a ready-reference guide to programs that have had a beneficial impact on users.
- To promote a self-help network for those who have common goals.

Those who work in schools have a unique advantage: Every day they are exposed to a myriad of strategies and possibilities from students and colleagues. Students, other educators, and printed material may introduce new and better ways to both teach and learn.

The descriptions of strategies, interventions, and programs attempt to highlight the essence of a variety of successful models that are currently being implemented in public schools throughout the country to promote change. The experience of the innovators of these models continues to form the cornerstone for preventing delinquency. Professionals working in the field are able to provide the building blocks for such change. This part of the handbook is a compendium of their accomplishments.

Most of the successful strategies and programs described here have been part of comprehensive improvement programs that have addressed multiple student needs. Although a single, isolated program can produce positive results, ideal programming will



***"Miss Williams says I need to work on seeing interrelationships between broader-based activities and specific factual material. I think that she means I haven't got it all together, yet."***

link home, school, and community in a long-range, multi-activity effort to prevent delinquency. Parents and community people need information in order to support student efforts to enhance self-esteem and to develop coping skills. Attitudes need to be positive, and goals need to be articulated clearly if academic performance is to improve. In delinquency prevention, progress often is slow, and continual adaptation is often a fact of life. These strategies show that significant progress is possible and probable when programs are planned and implemented carefully and given enough time to succeed.

## How Programs Were Selected

This compendium of programs is not all-inclusive. It presents a selection of strategies, interventions, and programs that have come to the attention of the National School Boards Association (NSBA) staff through their own research and through the help of the expert panels involved in developing this handbook. It also includes successful programs that were federally funded: The School Enhancement Research and Development Project and the National School Resource Network Project funded by the Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention (OJJDP); the Alternative Education Project funded by OJJDP and the U.S. Department of Labor; and the National Diffusion Network funded by the U.S. Department of Education. The programs included were selected on the basis of the following factors:

- Available information.
- Transferability.
- Evidence of success.
- A stated willingness by the implementers to share their experience with others.

Comparative costs were not considered in making selections. An attempt was made to balance the number of programs in each category and to have a representative geographic distribution.

## A Call To Share

No intent exists on the part of NSBA to publicize any one strategy, program, or research effort over any other. Certainly, many other successful programs exist in addition to those mentioned. It is hoped that practitioners involved in such programs will publicize their efforts through educational channels so that new knowledge and experience can be shared and incorporated in an expanding network for delinquency prevention.

## Program Categories

The strategies, interventions, and programs included in this handbook are divided into categories that reflect the crucial areas for school planning as developed in the research on effective schools and delinquency prevention. Following are capsule descriptions of the program categories:

***School Organization:*** Describes activities that are directed toward desired changes in the ways in which schools plan programs, manage daily operations, enforce rules and regulations, and create a positive environment for teaching and learning.

***Instructional Techniques:*** Highlights teaching methods used in the classroom or in the school community to promote achievement, to build confidence, and to improve student behavior.

***Curricula:*** Presents special programs or materials that have been developed for academic classes given during the school day and accepted as part of the regular course of study.

***Student Involvement:*** Features students as full participants in activities that broaden their academic and community experience and provide opportunities for social growth.

***School-Family Relationships:*** Focuses on increasing student and parent involvement in the educational process by drawing parents directly into school activities or by coordinating learning efforts with the home.

***School-Community Relationships:*** Involves parent, business, and industrial representatives in providing technical assistance, planning and advisory services, and job development or community service opportunities.

The strategies and programs within each category are arranged alphabetically, with the exception of the area of instructional techniques. There, the Cooperative Learning and Student Team Learning, and the specialized techniques used in these strategies, are grouped at the beginning of the section to offer a convenient, coherent description of the program possibilities employing cooperative methods of instruction.

## Program Subcategories

Each strategy, program, or technique is discussed in terms of its purpose, rationale, target audience, program description, evidence of effectiveness, materials needed, personnel and training required, contacts, and references and resources.

***Purpose:*** In general, each strategy, program, and approach is intended either to improve the effectiveness of schools or to prevent delinquency. The purpose statement for each model is a straight-forward declaration of the more specific objectives established by the project designers.

***Rationale:*** The underlying need for change and the theoretical underpinnings of delinquency prevention and effective school programming are

explored in the first section of this handbook. The rationale given for each program states the specific beliefs and assumptions critical to the program.

***Target Audience:*** The target audience describes both the type of audience for a particular program and, where students are the audience, the age range of the students. The age range is stated in fairly wide parameters, because experience has shown that many of the programs can serve a variety of age groups. As noted, some programs have been evaluated based on specific age groups and then expanded or applied to varying age groups.

***Description:*** Each description emphasizes the overall concept of each program and its major features. The summary has been reviewed for accuracy by either the contact person or program designer. Because each school and system considering any new program has unique characteristics and needs, different details and aspects of the existing programs will be relevant. To determine program applicability, these various aspects may be pursued by contacting those persons who are most knowledgeable about the programs.

***Evidence of Effectiveness:*** Research findings, anecdotal evidence, and the responses of those involved have been assembled and summarized. More comprehensive evaluation and comments are available either from the contact person or in the cited sources.

***Materials Needed:*** Materials vary greatly according to program needs. In some cases, required materials may be prepared by the school. In others, packaged materials may be either copied or purchased. Prices are listed, where applicable, but are subject to change without notice. Agreement concerning costs for materials is strictly between the parties involved.

***Personnel and Training Required:*** The assumption, as stated in the first part of this handbook, is that all new programs require some personnel and that these individuals must have some special training. Where appropriate, specific requirements and possible costs for that training have been listed. Again, cost must be negotiated individually. Additional broad-based, technical assistance and training needs may also be met with the support of sources listed in the Resource and Reference Guide of this handbook.

***Contacts:*** The contact persons or agencies listed were involved or are currently involved with the strategy or project and have agreed to cooperate in providing information, materials, and training. Where a major formal evaluation has been made, the evaluator is listed. Where programs exist in multiple locations, the most global source has been listed, with the expectation that this primary source will provide regional or local contacts. Many of the projects are currently being implemented in schools throughout the country. Rather than list individual school sites, attempts have been made to list contacts that are equipped to handle the number of requests that may emanate from a publication of this type.

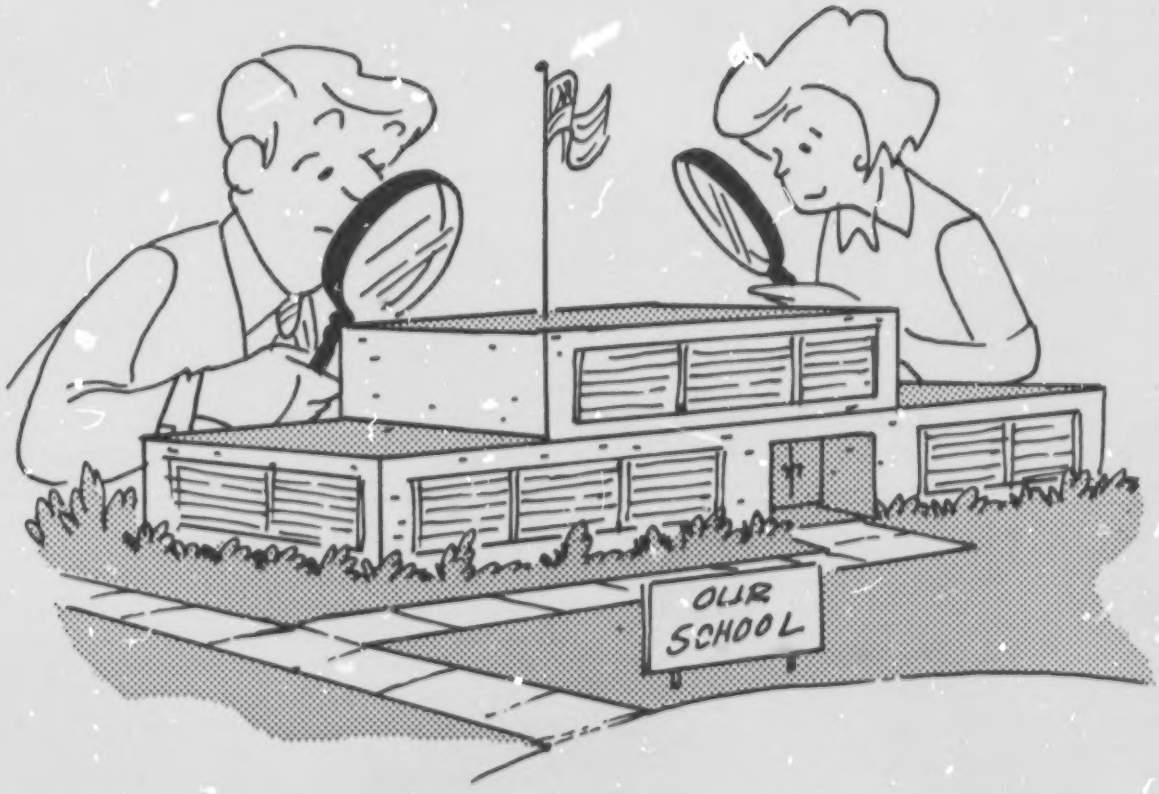
***References/Resources:*** The items or people listed are those identified through research or through the contact person or agency. They have special expertise directly relevant to the specific strategy and can provide background or additional information. The heading has been omitted if the contact person is either the best or only available resource. Further background information regarding general prevention and program development appears in the Resource and Reference Guide, Part III of this handbook.

## Using The Strategies

The strategy section may be used to introduce ideas before undertaking the planning process or to focus on specific ways to implement programs that meet the priorities established during the planning process. Evidence of success in one location, however, is no guarantee that any single program or combination of programs described will produce identical results in a different location. Some programs have been used widely for many years and others are new programs with less documentation of successful operation. In any case, close attention to details of program design and implementation is essential for any replication effort. In all cases, the implementers of these programs are committed and excited about their progress, and they are, therefore, enthusiastic about sharing their experiences and resources.

STRATEGY

# School Organization



## School Organization

**Local School Development Project**
- Operation Success
- Program Development Evaluation
- School Climate Improvement
- School Improvement Project
- School Team Approach Using Alcohol and Drug Abuse Education Program
- Schools-Within-A-School
- Social Literacy Training

# Local School Development Project (LSDP)

### Purpose:

To improve the academic performance of students, instruction, and the overall learning environment through comprehensive planning achieved by creating school committees that represent the different constituencies within each participating school community.

### Rationale:

Schools must initiate their own development with major constituencies participating in planning, assessment, and implementation. Collaboration among constituencies is a key factor to success, along with the principal's leadership ability and the coordinated support of all levels of the school system.

***"In these days of budget cuts, most superintendents say, 'I don't need anyone to help me—I just need more money.' Well, we had more money, and we did no better. Local School Development says, 'Identify your problems and solve them with what you have."***

Dr. Peter Negroni
Superintendent
Bronx, New York

### Target Audience:

Students in elementary, junior, and senior high schools. The high school model, initiated in the fall of 1983, includes school-industry/business partnerships to ease the transition of students from school to work.

### Description:

The primary goal of the Local School Development Project (LSDP) is the improvement of students' academic achievement by establishing and supporting a planning team within the school. The team advises the school principal during preparation of a comprehensive school plan and then acts in a supportive capacity during the implementation, continuing review, and revision of the plan. Comprehensive planning involves collaborative development and implementation of short- and long-term projects designed to address all aspects of the instructional, administrative, social, and physical environments of the school. The team is comprised of representatives of the school's constituency groups, including administrators, staff, parents, and students (at the intermediate and high school level). The involvement of the area superintendent and district office staff is a major part of the collaboration effort.

The team and the project staff consultants in each school may provide such activities as leadership training, in-service workshops on teaching strategies focused on basic skills development, and participation programs for parents and community resource networks. The project also provides a superintendents' forum, a principals' leadership program, a training program for planning teams, a chairpersons' workshop, and local network meetings of project participants.

### Evidence of Effectiveness:

Evaluations of the LSDP in the New York City schools indicate that those schools that had been part of the project since 1979 had an average gain

in reading of 22 points, while the average gain of other schools was 15.2 for the same three-year period. Those involved report a better school climate, improved attitudes, and generally better behavior on the part of students.

### Materials Needed:

Descriptive materials are available from the New York Urban Coalition (see Contacts). Evaluation documents are available from the Office of Educational Evaluation, New York City Public Schools, 110 Livingston Street, Brooklyn, New York 11201.

### Personnel and Training Required:

Project implementation requires administrators and consultants experienced in management, change, and instructional strategies, who work with schools and the community in organizing and training their school district planning committees. Each school appoints an internal coordinator, usually part time, who chairs the committee and works closely with the principal.

### Contacts:

Askia Davis and Ernest Turner, Co-Project Directors, New York Urban Coalition, Local School Development Project, 1515 Broadway, New York, New York 10036, (212) 921-3512.

Lynn Gray, Vice President, Education Program, New York Urban Coalition, 1515 Broadway, New York, New York 10036, (212) 921-3512.

Patrick Montesano, Research and Program Development, Education Program, New York Urban Coalition, 1515 Broadway, New York, New York 10036, (212) 921-3512.

### References/Resources:


Eubanks, Eugene, and Daniel Levine. "A First Look at Effective School Projects in New York City and Milwaukee." *Phi Delta Kappan*, Vol. 64, No. 10 (1983), pp. 697-702.

Fuller, Michael, Miles Matthew, and Gibb Taylor. *Organization Development in Schools: The State of the Art*. Washington, D.C.: National Institute of Education, February 1981.

McCarthy, D., J. Canner, and A. Pershing. *Local School Development Project Summative Evaluation 1979-1982*. New York City Public Schools: Office of Educational Evaluation, December 1982.

*"Wilson, about your idea of a do-it-yourself survey . . ."*

# Operation Success (OS)

**Purpose:**

To bring at-risk youngsters back into school, to enable them to succeed in school, and to help them define their career goals and earn a high school diploma.

**Rationale:**

The current high school dropout rate in New York City is about 45 percent. Most of these youths have few skills and no career direction, are unemployed, and have associated problems within their families and communities.

**Target Audience:**

At-risk high school youth from five New York City high schools, approximately 2,000 youth.

**Description:**

A staff of 9 to 11 professionals works in each school in close cooperation with school administrators and faculty. The Operation Success team is composed of Case Managers, Evaluators, a Career Development Specialist, a Community Resource Specialist, a Job Developer, and an Educational Internship Coordinator. Students who are at-risk usually are referred to Operation Success by school staff or are identified through the school's long-term absentee list.

Once enrolled, students are counseled on choices of Operation Success activities, on career direction, and on any personal problems that pose obstacles to school performance.

Student participation in program activities is monitored. In an effort to keep students in the program and in school, the Outreach Worker contacts those whose attendance drops. Those who need additional social, financial, or medical services are referred by staff to other appropriate agencies.

Students are evaluated for their work aptitude on the VITAS and APTICOM systems. A student then may be referred to either a Business or Trades program at the Federation Employment and Guidance Service Trades or Business Schools. (Operation Success is administered by Federation Employment and Guidance Service, a private, non-profit human service agency, in cooperation with the New York State Education Department, the New York City Board of Education, and the United Federation of Teachers.) Other activities open to Operation Success students are career guidance groups or educational internships. Some students also are placed in part-time jobs.

**Evidence of Effectiveness:**

An evaluation of the project by the Queens College for Urban and Labor Programs found a significant improvement in schools' retention of at-risk youth during the first year of Operation Success, 1982-83. Further, 70 percent of the high-risk youths participating in Operation Success who were eligible to graduate did graduate from high school.

**Materials Needed:**

VITAS and APTICOM units for educational evaluations.

**Personnel and Training Required:**

Case Managers are required to have a degree in counseling. All staff must receive intensive orientation; training is continuous.

**Contacts:**

Peter Kleinbard, Director of Educational Services, Federation Employment and Guidance Service; 510 Sixth Avenue, New York, New York 10011.

# Program Development Evaluation

**Purpose:**

To assist schools in developing plans to implement and evaluate delinquency prevention and school improvement projects.

**Rationale:**

Schools will be most effective in creating useful changes if personnel are clear about the goals and objectives of the projects, use a "theory-of-action" as a guide to program development, carefully choose interventions, develop careful management plans, provide explicit guidance to teachers and administrators regarding what is expected of them, and use information derived from project monitoring to improve the program over time.

**Target Audience:**

Educational leaders: school board members, system administrators, building administrators, and involved teachers and community representatives.

**Description:**

The Program Development Evaluation process provides a structure for systematic program planning incorporating several key elements: problem definition and goal specification; theory elaboration; specification of measurable objectives; choice of interventions; force-field analysis; development of strategies or plans that specify critical bench marks, tasks, and implementation standards; and monitoring and use of information in continued program development. Project management plans are reviewed as part of the process.

**Evidence of Effectiveness:**

A number of projects involved in the Alternative Education Initiative sponsored by the Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention used this structure for program development and have shown evidence of school improvement, increases in safety, increases in academic performance, or decreases in student and teacher victimization (see Contacts).

**Materials Needed:**

Flip charts, felt pens, paper, pencils, and typewriter or word processor.

**Personnel and Training Required:**

A three to five-day initial workshop is followed by periodic booster workshops for key project personnel, usually four to five per school, or three to ten per district.

**Contacts:**

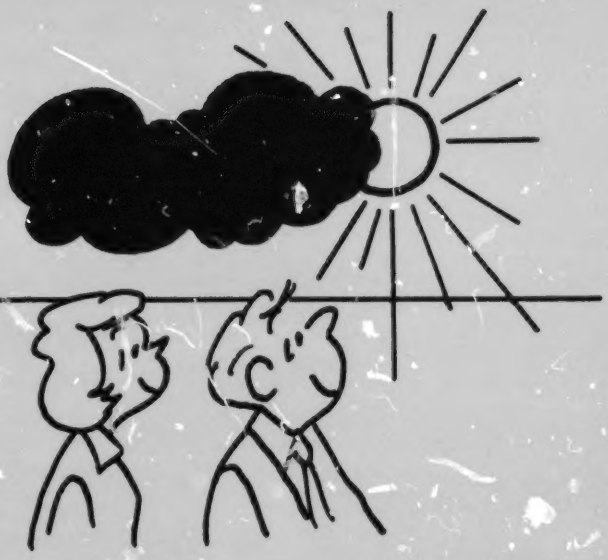
Program in Delinquency and School Environments, Center for Social Organization of Schools, Johns Hopkins University, 3505 North Charles Street, Baltimore, Maryland 21218, (301) 338-7570.

**References/Resources:**

Gottfredson, D.C. *Project PATHE: Second Interim Report*. In Gottfredson, Gary D, and D.C. Gottfredson, *The School Action Effectiveness Study: Second Interim Report, Part II*, ed. M.S. Cook. Baltimore, Maryland: Johns Hopkins University, Center for Social Organization of Schools, 1983.

Gottfredson, Gary D. *A Theory-Ridden Approach to Program Evaluation: A Method for Stimulating Researcher-Implementer Collaboration*. Baltimore, Maryland: Johns Hopkins University, Center for Social Organization of Schools, 1982.

Gottfredson, Gary D., E. Rickert, D.C. Gottfredson, and N. Advani. *Standards for Program Development Evaluation Plans. Report No. 341*. Baltimore, Maryland: Johns Hopkins University, Center for Social Organization of Schools, 1983.



# School Climate Improvement

**Purpose:**

To improve the general "feel" or climate of the school in order to achieve mutual respect; to improve cohesiveness, trust, and caring; and to gain a feeling of satisfaction for students and educators.

**Rationale:**

How people feel about their school can either foster or hinder change. Open communication, school self-assessment, planning for school improvement projects, and adopting new organizational philosophies can promote productive change in schools. As the climate improves, symptoms of alienation (such as discipline and attendance problems) decline. As people become involved actively in systematic school improvement, climate and morale are enhanced.

**Target Audience:**

Building administrators and teachers.

**Description:**

The School Climate Improvement strategy provides a way to work toward a humane school environment. An eight-step process has been defined which, if followed carefully, will result in an improved climate. A staff development/school improvement kit has been published, providing instruments for diagnosing climate and instructions for their use, and suggested activities and projects. Base-line and bench-mark data are collected to document the positive impact of climate improvement.

**Evidence of Effectiveness:**

Recent studies indicate that an improved climate helps to reduce the symptoms of alienation and improves achievement. Examples of schools that have improved their climate and reduced disciplinary problems, reduced absenteeism, and increased achievement are cited in the relevant literature.

**Materials Needed:**

Two inexpensive books (see References/Resources); mimeograph paper, 3-by-5 cards, blackboard or flip charts, and pens.

**Personnel and Training Required:**

Key school personnel experienced in managing staff development workshops are needed. The success of the process depends primarily on the ability of the principal to manage the improvement committee and the task forces. Needs assessments may be conducted by outside trained personnel or by staff using the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development (ASCD) kit.

**Contacts:**

Eugene R. Howard, Colorado Department of Education, State Office Building, 301 West Colfax, Denver, Colorado 80204, (303) 534-8871.

**References/Resources:**

Fox, Robert, et al. *School Climate Improvement: A Challenge to the School Administrator*. Tulsa: CFK Ltd., 1974.

Howard, Eugene R. *School Discipline Desk Book*. West Nyack: Parker, 1978 ($6.00).

*Improving School Climate: A Staff Development-School Improvement Process*. Alexandria, Virginia: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development (ASCD), 1983.

Kelley, Edgar A. *Improving Leadership Techniques for Principals*. Reston, Virginia: National Association of Secondary School Principals, 1980.

*School Climate: Evaluation and Implementation*. CADRE Publications Center, College of Education, 600 South College, University of Tulsa, Tulsa, Oklahoma 74101 ($4.95).

# School Improvement Project (SIP)

**Purpose:**

To assist a school in the innovative and flexible use of its available technical and supportive resources in order to improve instructional effectiveness.

**Rationale:**

A planning committee can best address the development of a school improvement plan using the school's assessed needs in five factor areas as identified by Ron Edmonds (see References/ Resources).

**Target Audience:**

Low-achieving elementary, junior, and senior high school students.

**Description:**

The School Improvement Project (SIP) is an eight-step comprehensive program designed to improve instructional effectiveness. Project staff help interested schools complete a needs assessment in the five factor areas identified by Edmonds as contributing to effective schools: administrative style, instructional emphasis on basic skills, school climate, continuing assessment of pupil progress, and teacher expectations of pupil growth.

Each school forms a planning committee which includes representatives from SIP, the school administration, and each faction of the school community. The committee is responsible for developing a plan according to the needs identified in the assessment and for reviewing the plan with the school community. The committee then implements the plan according to the approved design, evaluates and revises the plan when necessary, and makes the positive changes a permanent part of the school program.

In all of the individual school projects, emphasis is placed on basic skills and on staff development. The project staff furnish materials on a wide variety of topics, conduct workshops, and act as consultants. The SIP liaisons offer continuing support, but individual schools carry out their own projects.

**Evidence of Effectiveness:**

The project has been in existence in New York City schools for five years (1979-84). During these five years, there have been significant gains in all five factor areas. The average increase in reading achievement scores for SIP schools is 6.3 percent over a five-year period, as compared to 3.8 percent for non participating city schools.

**Materials Needed:**

Depend on the projects of individual schools, but a variety of materials are available from the project staff.

**Personnel and Training Required:**

A team of two school liaison persons is assigned to each school to carry out the eight steps of the SIP process. A project director and secretarial staff at a central office coordinate school liaisons.

**Contacts:**

Anthony Spina, Director, School Improvement Project, 131 Livingston Street, Room 510, Brooklyn, New York 11201, (212) 596-6007.

Dr. Shirley Ford, Senior Staff Developer, 110 Livingston Street, Room 816, Brooklyn, New York 11201, (212) 596-4830.

**References/Resources:**

Canner, J., R. Cirillo, D.P. McCarthy, and A. Lazarus. *An Assessment of Ten New York City Elementary Schools Using Edmonds' School Effectiveness Factors*. New York: New York City Public Schools, MEDARP Documentation Unit, 1981.

Clark, T., and D.P. McCarthy. "School Improvement in New York City: The Evolution of a Project." *Educational Researcher*, Vol. 12, No. 4 (April, 1983), pp. 17-24.

Edmonds, Ron. "Effective Schools for the Urban Poor." *Educational Leadership*, Vol. 37 (1979), pp. 15-27.

McCarthy, D.P., J. Canner, A. Lazarus, and L. Chawla. *School Improvement Project: Second Annual Process Evaluation*. New York: New York City Public Schools, MEDARP Documentation Unit, 1981.

McCarthy, D.P., J. Canner, L. Chawla, and A. Pershing. *School Improvement Project: Third Annual Process Evaluation*. New York: New York City Public Schools, MEDARP Documentation Unit, 1982.

McCarthy, D.P., J. Canner, and A. Lazarus. *Increasing School Effectiveness Through School-Based Evaluation*. Paper presented at the AERA annual meeting, New York, March 1982.

New York City Public Schools. *The School Improvement Project Case Study Report*. New York: School Improvement Project, 1979.

Purkey, S.C., and M.S. Smith. "Effective Schools: A Review." *Elementary Schools Journal*, Vol. 83, No. 4 (1983), pp. 427-452.

# School Team Approach Using Alcohol and Drug Abuse Education Program (ADAEP)

**Purpose:**

To reduce school crime and fear of crime and to prevent and reduce drug and alcohol abuse and associated disruptive behaviors.

**Rationale:**

A team drawn from diverse groups in the school and community can work effectively to overcome school crime, fear of crime, and drug and alcohol abuse by using prevention strategies.

**Target Audience:**

All students and school personnel.

**Description:**

The School Team Approach, which uses techniques developed for alcohol and drug abuse education, mobilizes local school and community people to solve a variety of school-related problems and to equip them with skills to do so effectively. Each school forms a team of six to eight members, including administrators, teachers, counselors, parents, students, and community representatives. The team trains together at the ADAEP residential center usually for ten days to develop skills in needs assessment, problem-solving, and communication and group process and to develop a plan of action geared to the specific problems of its school. With limited technical assistance from the regional center, the team then carries out the plan at its school site. Teams are expected eventually to become self-sustaining.

A team typically tries a combination of projects as part of its action plan. The most effective high school teams have emphasized increased communication both within the school and between school and community. The most effective middle and elementary school teams have worked to improve handling of discipline and security, teacher/parent relationships, and student/teacher relationships.

**Evidence of Effectiveness:**

Programs set up by the teams reach approximately 500,000 youth annually. Teams have been established in 4,500 school communities throughout the nation. A five-year evaluation study by Social Action Research Center (SARC) of 200 high, middle, and elementary schools using this approach under an interagency agreement between the Office of Education and the Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention, found that effective teams can reduce the extent of crime in their schools and that the longer the team works effectively, the greater the reduction in crime. Crime also decreased more rapidly in the early months of team activity.

The researchers concluded that it is more difficult to reduce theft and drug use than to reduce personal victimization, classroom disruption, and fear of crime. They also found that reduction in disruptive behavior, attacks on students and teachers, and tension in the school is greater in middle schools than in either high schools or elementary schools.

**Materials Needed:**

Vary according to program selected.

**Personnel and Training Required:**

Each school team receives seven days of training designed for this program, and then continuing technical assistance.

**Contacts:**

J. Douglas Grant and Joan Grant, Social Action Research Center (SARC), 6849 Lucas Valley Road, Nicasio, California 94946, (415) 456-3259.

National Alcohol and Drug Abuse Education Program, U.S. Department of Education, Washington, D.C. 20202, (202) 472-7777.

Region 2—Northeast: Dr. Gerald Edwards, U.S. Department of Education, Alcohol and Drug Abuse Training and Resource Center, Adelphi National Training Institute, P.O. Box 403, Sayville, New York 11782-0403, (516) 589-7022.

Region 4—Southeast: Beth Malray, U.S. Department of Education, Alcohol and Drug Abuse Training and Resource Center, 1450 Madruga Avenue, Suite 406, Coral Gables, Florida 33146, (305) 284-5741.

Region 5—Midwest: Micky Finn, U.S. Department of Education, Alcohol and Drug Abuse Training and Resource Center, 2 North Riverside Plaza, Suite 821, Chicago, Illinois 60606-2653, (312) 726-2485.

Region 7—Southwest: James Kazan, U.S Department of Education, Alcohol and Drug Abuse Training and Resource Center, Center for Educational Development, 2929 Mossrock Drive, Suite 107, San Antonio, Texas 78230, (512) 340-9533.

Region 8—West: V.C. League, U.S. Department of Education, Alcohol and Drug Abuse Training and Resource Center, Region 8 Training and Development Center, Inc., 300 Webster Street, Suite 106, Oakland, California 94607, (415) 452-0901.

**References/Resources:**


Edwards, Gerald. *Reaching Out—The Prevention of Drug Abuse Through Increased Human Intervention*. Available from the Alcohol and Drug Abuse Training and Resource Center, Adelphi National Training Institute, P.O. Box 403, Sayville, New York 11782-0403.

Grant, Joan, and Frank J. Capell. *Reducing School Crime: A Report on the School-Team Approach*. Social Action Research Center, August 1983. Prepared under Grant No. 78-JN-AX-0016 from The National Institute for Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention.

*The School-Team Approach*. U.S. Department of Education, Alcohol and Drug Abuse Education Program, 1980 (available from the Regional Training Centers).


***"The surge in illicit drug use during the last decade has proven to be primarily a youth phenomenon, with onset of use most likely to occur during adolescence. From one year to the next, particular drugs rise or fall in popularity, and related problems occur for youth, for their families, for governmental agencies, and for society as a whole."***

Drug and The Class of '78:
Behaviors, Attitudes, and Recent
National Trends
National Institute on Drug Abuse

# Schools-Within-A-School

**Purpose:**
To create more informal, personal units or "houses" that can combat the alienation caused by depersonalized, sprawling secondary schools.

**Rationale:**
The house plan offers an opportunity to form personal relationships and to receive individual attention possible in a small school setting. At the same time, it can provide the benefits of the diverse resources available in the larger school.

**Target Audience:**
Students in large, secondary schools.

**Description:**
Large schools using this plan have developed a number of variations. Usually the large school is divided into smaller units called subschools, little schools, pods, clusters, or houses. Houses can be physically separate buildings or can be units within a single building. Houses may include all grades (vertical), be a single grade (horizontal), or be divided by curriculum (academic or vocational). Students usually spend half of their time in their house and take electives in facilities shared by the entire student body. Students and faculty for each house are selected randomly, wherever possible, with each subschool usually reflecting the population distribution of the larger school.

Setting up Schools-Within-A-School requires significant changes in allocation of space and facilities. It involves reassigning students and staff, restructuring administrative relationships, rescheduling classes, and developing new communication techniques.

**Evidence of Effectiveness:**
Schools-Within-A-School have been implemented at North End Middle School in Waterbury, Connecticut; at Twin Lakes High School in West Palm Beach, Florida, as part of the School Enhancement Research and Development Project; and in at least six Wisconsin high schools. They also have been used in alternative education projects, especially Project PATHE. Reports are positive and document decreased academic failure, a reduction in truancy and disruption, and an increase in socially responsible behavior and attachment to school (see Contacts).

**Materials Needed:**
Reallocated office space and classrooms.

**Personnel and Training Required:**
All school personnel and students are involved. In-service training provides a thorough understanding of the concept for principals, teachers, and other school personnel, who then can help parents and students prepare for and adjust to the changes.

**Contacts:**
Gary Gottfredson, Center for Social Organization of Schools, Johns Hopkins University, 3505 North Charles Street, Baltimore, Maryland 21218, (301) 338-8249.

Matt Larkin, Principal, North End Middle School, Bucks Hill Road, Waterbury, Connecticut 06704, (203) 574-9087.

School Enhancement Research and Development Project, Center for Law and Justice, Joseph G. Weis, Director, JD-45, University of Washington, Seattle, Washington 98195, (206) 543-1485.

Gary Wehlage, Wisconsin Center for Education Research, University of Wisconsin-Madison, 225 North Mills Street, Madison, Wisconsin 53706, (608) 263-4200 or 263-6262.

**References/Resources:**


Barrett, Richard Eugene. "A description and appraisal of the school-within-a-school plan of secondary education." Dissertation, University of Kansas. Available from University Microfilms International, 300 North Zeeb Road, Ann Arbor, Michigan 48106 (Order No. 71-27218).

Burgess, Lovola, W.D. Smith, and S.D. Smith. "The House Plan: Can It Personalize Education?" *National Association of Secondary School Principals Bulletin*, Vol. 64 (1980), pp. 32-38.

*Effective Programs for the Marginal High School Student*. Center for Education Research Document Center, 1025 West Johnson Street, Madison, Wisconsin 53706 ($3.00).

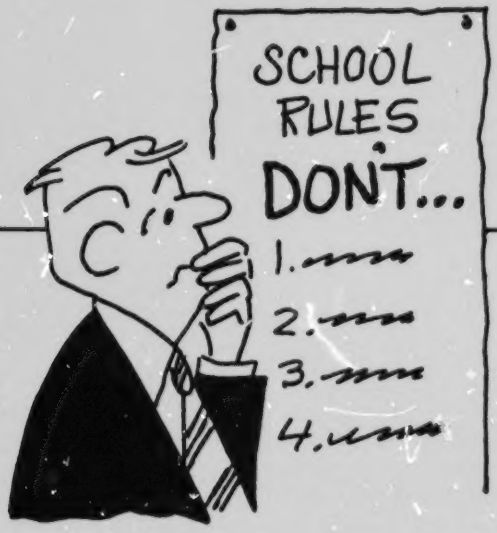
Kraegel, Charles R. "The House Plan in Secondary Schools." *The Clearing House*, Vol. 50 (1977), pp. 392-394.

*The Marginal High School Student: Defining the Problem and Searching for Policy*. Available from the Center for Educational Research ($5.50).


***"This plan constitutes a pattern by which a single school can combine the advantages of a large secondary school with a varied curriculum and facilities and the advantages of a small secondary school in terms of psychological closeness, awareness of individual differences and personal concern."***

Robert Ramsey
New York
Schools-Within A-School

***"Our architect has come up with a design for an innovative, open space building that even our most tradition-minded critics would like."***




# Social Literacy Training

**Purpose:**
To organize groups of educators to identify common problems, analyze systemic causes, and take democratic action to improve the system.

**Rationale:**
Our ingrained mind-sets often lead to the assumption that individuals are responsible for school-related difficulties, when actually the cause is in the system of school rules, roles, and relationships.

**Target Audience:**
School administrators and teachers.

**Description:**
The Social Literacy group focuses on the transformation of troublesome rules and roles, rather than on the rule enforcers and role occupants. Each group must evaluate its own situation, reflect on the systemic causes of specific problems, and transform the system cooperatively. A solution is socially literate if it focuses on a pattern of conflict, not on an incident; identifies causes in conflict-producing rules and roles; considers alternative solutions; is implemented democratically; is mutually agreeable; and is sustained.

The nuclear problem-solving process includes two or more teachers or administrators and takes 20 minutes. Other specific techniques have been developed to conquer burn-out, to measure and increase learning time, and to identify central school conflicts.

Use of Social Literacy groups helps to raise the level of consciousness about oppressive aspects of the system, including analysis of discipline problems, violence, vandalism, and drug abuse. When specific oppressive rules are identified, they become precise targets for collaborative, democratic action. Socially Literate action begins with speaking a "true word," which becomes part of the dialogue to resolve discipline problems.

**Evidence of Effectiveness:**
Groups have been used in Hartford, Connecticut, and in Springfield, Massachusetts. The evaluation cited in the source book listed in "Materials Needed," below, indicated extremely positive teacher attitudes, significantly decreased classroom conflict, increased academic achievement, greater order, democratic participation, and a 75 percent reduction in referrals to the front office for disciplining. Further, a case study of a Hartford youth gang showed a dramatic turn-around after the Socially Literate intersession of a respected teacher.

**Materials Needed:**
Source book. Alschuler, Alfred. *School Discipline: A Socially Literate Solution*. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1980.

**Personnel and Training Required:**
An audio-tape workshop—Resolving Classroom Conflict Through Social Literacy—consists of eight tapes, each about one hour long. The cost is less than $50 and is considerably less than the fee for a trainer. Available from: Gordon Felton, National Education Association Publication, 1201 16th Street, N.W., Washington, D.C. 20036.

**Contacts:**
Alfred Alschuler, 456 Hills South, University of Massachusetts, Amherst, Massachusetts 01003, (413) 545-2047.

# Instructional Techniques

## Instructional

**Cooperative Learning (Johnson & Johnson Model)**
- Student Team Learning
- Jigsaw I & II
- Team Assisted Individualization
- Teams-Games-Tournaments
- Student Teams-Achievement Divisions
- DISTAR (Direct Instructional System for Teaching Arithmetic and Reading)
- Interactive Teaching
- Mastery Learning
- Ounce Classroom Management Program
- Proactive Classroom Management

# Cooperative Learning
## (JOHNSON & JOHNSON MODEL)

**Purpose:**

To structure mutually beneficial interactions and teach cooperative behaviors among students.

**Rationale:**

The ability of all students to cooperate with other people is the keystone to building and maintaining stable friendships, families, career success, neighborhood and community membership, important values and beliefs, and contributions to society. In addition, structuring cooperative learning groups has been found to improve achievement, attitudes toward school, acceptance of differences in classrooms, self-esteem, and a number of other school outcomes when compared with having students work alone.

**Target Audience:**

Students in preschool through university settings.

**Description:**

The essence of cooperative learning is mutuality or positive interdependence, a "we sink or swim together" feeling. One way of structuring mutuality among students is to assign a group task, such as a single project in which students try to achieve as high a group average on a test as possible. There are many other ways to structure mutuality, including using bonus points for group success, using other rewards such as free time which may not be related to individual grades, or assigning related roles to group members. The entire group then is rewarded on the basis of the quality and quantity of its product according to a fixed set of standards. The size of the group may vary according to the age of the group members and nature of the task, but small groups of two to five members with heterogeneous membership are encouraged.

Groups are clustered so that they are close to each other, but separated sufficiently from other groups to allow access lanes for the teacher. Each group receives a set of materials or, in some cases, each group member may be given one piece of the total prepared material (See the instructional strategy, Jigsaw I & II) to share with the group.

To structure the cooperative interaction, the teacher explains the instructional task, sets the group goal emphasizing mutuality, explains the criteria for success emphasizing that all groups could be successful and each group member will be evaluated on the basis of the quality of his or her group's work, and specifies the behaviors that are needed for the cooperative interaction. The teacher monitors the groups as they work, intervenes where appropriate, and acts as a consultant.

This model suggests that suitable competition and individualistic work should be structured carefully, but that predominant use of cooperation reduces anxiety and evaluation apprehension while increasing motivation and achievement.

Cooperative learning also is a useful strategy for developing social skills, for structuring positive interactions for handicapped and non handicapped students, and for helping students from varying ethnic backgrounds build a climate for accepting differences.

**Evidence of Effectiveness:**

Hundreds of studies demonstrate the superiority of cooperative, as compared with competitive and individualistic, relationships in promoting healthy social development, academic achievement, and a variety of other learning outcomes. (See the following in References/Resources: *Learning Together and Alone;* and *Applied Social Psychology Annual*, Vol. 4).

**Materials Needed:**

A wide range of materials has been developed, including a set of lesson plan books illustrating

cooperative lessons, two films (see References/Resources), an evaluation system, training materials, and reprints of research articles.

**Personnel and Training Required:**

Developing cooperative learning techniques requires in-service training. The focus on cooperative interaction and social skills during the training itself encourages participants to improve their staff relationships and teaming (Johnson & Johnson, 1980). Training should be spaced throughout the year and on-the-job support strategies should be provided.

**Contacts:**

Roger T. Johnson and David W. Johnson, Cooperative Learning Center, University of Minnesota, 202 Pattee Hall, Minneapolis, Minnesota 55455, (612) 373-5829.

**References/Resources:**


*Applied Social Psychology Annual*, Vol. 4. Ed. Leonard Bickman. Beverly Hills, California: Sage Publications, 1983.

Johnson, David W., and Frank P. Johnson. *Joining Together: Group Theory and Group Skills*, 2nd ed. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, 1982.

Johnson, David W., and Roger T. Johnson. "The Key to Effective In-service: Building Teacher-Teacher Collaboration." *The Developer*, Oxford, Ohio: National Staff Development Council, 1980.

*Learning Together and Alone*. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, 1975.

"The Socialization and Achievement Crises: Are Cooperative Learning Experiences the Solution?" Ed. L. Bickman. *Applied Social Psychology Annual*, Vol. 4, Beverly Hills, California: Sage Publications, 1983.

*Structuring Cooperative Learning: The 1980 Handbook*. Ed. V. Lyons. Minneapolis, Minnesota: Interaction Book Company, 1980.

*Structuring Cooperative Learning: The 1982 Handbook*. Ed. P. Roy. Minneapolis, Minnesota: Interaction Book Company, 1982.

FILMS: *Belonging*. A 25-minute filmstrip focusing on mainstreaming in the junior high school setting. Minneapolis, Minnesota: University of Minnesota, Cooperative Learning Center, 1981.

*Circles of Learning*. A 30-minute filmstrip focusing on teaching social skills in elementary and high school settings. Minneapolis, Minnesota: University of Minnesota, Cooperative Learning Center, 1981.

***"What I don't understand is why grownups call these 'the happiest days of your life' and then make you learn long division."***

## Instructional

Cooperative Learning (Johnson & Johnson Model)
**Student Team Learning**
Jigsaw I & II
Team Assisted Individualization
Teams-Games-Tournaments
Student Teams-Achievement Divisions
DISTAR (Direct Instructional System for Teaching Arithmetic and Reading)
Interactive Teaching
Mastery Learning
Ounce Classroom Management Program
Proactive Classroom Management

# Student Team Learning (STL)

### Purpose:

To improve student academic achievement, to develop positive inter-student relations, and to improve self-esteem and feelings of confidence.

### Rationale:

When students learn in small, carefully structured teams and are rewarded for working toward a common goal, they help one another, gain self-esteem, feel individual responsibility for their work, and learn to like and respect each other.

### Target Audience:

Students in grades K through 12.

### Description:

Team learning encourages students to be responsible for their assignments, to work together, to pay attention to one another, and to understand differences. Teachers organize the classroom into teams, each composed of four students. The teams are heterogeneous in ability, race, and sex. Students study academic material in their teams and earn points for their teams by scoring well on quizzes or succeeding in tournament competition.

All students work toward a common goal and have an equal opportunity to contribute points to the team score. Although competition is used, individual students are measured only against their own past performance. Specific techniques of Student Team Learning (STL) include: Teams-Games-Tournaments, Student Teams-Achievement Divisions, Team Assisted Individualization, and Jigsaw. Each of these techniques is described separately in the instructional strategies immediately following.

### Evidence of Effectiveness:

Of 23 research studies conducted, 17 showed significantly positive effects on the Student Team Learning processes compared to control groups. Student Team Learning also had a positive effect on student academic achievement, intergroup relations, student self-esteem, attitudes regarding school, cooperativeness and altruism, and time-on-task. These studies were conducted in grades 3 through 12 in math, language arts, and other subject areas. Teacher and student reports regarding effectiveness are positive. This type of classroom organization is appropriate especially for groups of wide academic or ethnic diversity and for those with mainstreamed students.

### Materials Needed:

*Student Team Learning Teacher's Manual.* Curriculum kits for use in language arts, math, science, and social studies are available but are not required.

### Personnel and Training Required:

Complete teacher training consists of a two-day workshop conducted by STL staff or by a certified trainer. Training sessions are conducted for groups of 12 to 50 persons. The cost is negotiated individually.

**Contacts:**

Ruth Carter, Robert Slavin, and John Hollifield, Center for Social Organization of Schools, 3505 North Charles Street, Baltimore, Maryland 21218, (301) 338-8249.

**References/Resources:**


Slavin, Robert E. *Cooperative Learning: Student Teams*. Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1982.

Johnson, David W., and Roger T. Johnson. "The Key to Effective In-service: Building Teacher-Teacher Collaboration." *The Developer*, Oxford, Ohio: National Staff Development Council, 1980.

Johnson, David W., and Roger T. Johnson. "The Socialization and Achievement Crises: Are Cooperative Learning Experiences the Solution?" In *Applied Social Psychology Annual*, Vol. 4, Ed. L. Bickman. Beverly Hills, California: Sage Publications, 1983.

*Structuring Cooperative Learning: The 1980 Handbook*. Ed. V. Lyons, Minneapolis, Minnesota: Interaction Book Company, 1980.

*Structuring Cooperative Learning: The 1982 Handbook*. Ed. P. Roy.

Minneapolis, Minnesota: Interaction Book Company, 1982.

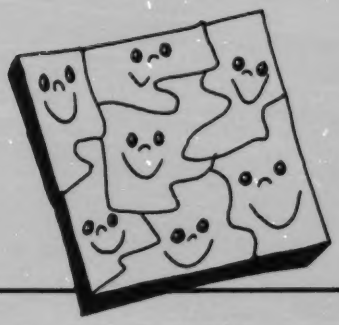
*Using Team Learning*. Rev. ed. Baltimore, Maryland: Johns Hopkins Student Team Learning Project, Center for Social Organization of Schools, 1980.

***"I haven't learned just about nouns, verbs, and their forms. I've learned about my fellow classmates. I can help some of them and they sometimes help me."***

Seventh grade language arts student
Michigan

## Instructional

Cooperative Learning (Johnson & Johnson Model)
Student Team Learning
**Jigsaw I & II**
Team Assisted Individualization
Teams-Games-Tournaments
Student Teams-Achievement Divisions
DISTAR (Direct Instructional System for Teaching Arithmetic and Reading)
Interactive Teaching
Mastery Learning
Ounce Classroom Management Program
Proactive Classroom Management



# Jigsaw I and II

## A COOPERATIVE LEARNING AND STUDENT TEAM LEARNING TECHNIQUE

### Purpose:

To improve academic achievement, to encourage friendships among students, and to enhance student self-esteem.

### Rationale:

Educational research has demonstrated that heterogeneous teams made up of students of varying achievement levels, sex, and ethnic backgrounds can be used in the classroom to improve student learning significantly.

### Target Audience:

Students in grades 3 through 9.

### Description:

In the Jigsaw I (Aronson) method, students are assigned to six-member teams. Academic material is divided into five sections with each team member receiving a unique section, with the exception of two students who share one section. Individuals from each team who have studied the same sections meet in expert groups and then return to their own groups. They take turns teaching teammates about their sections.

In Jigsaw II (Slavin variation), students work in four- to five-member teams. All students read a common narrative, but each student is given one aspect in which to become an expert. Students from each team meet in expert groups and then return to their own groups to teach their classmates. Students take individual quizzes on all of the material. Quiz scores are formed into team scores using improvement over previous performance by each individual. The highest scoring teams and individuals are recognized in a class newsletter.

Jigsaw is most appropriate in subject areas where STAD and TGT (see following instructional strategies) are used, and are least appropriate for classes in social studies, literature, and science involving narrative material.

### Evidence of Effectiveness:

The Student Team Learning Studies by the Johns Hopkins University document positive effects, as do teacher anecdotal reports. In another two-week study of Jigsaw I, Black and Mexican-American students in Jigsaw classes learned more than their counterparts (Lucker et al, 1976). In a Jigsaw II study, those who participated demonstrated greater academic achievement than the control group and maintained differences even after 10 weeks (Ziegler).

### Materials Needed:

*The Jigsaw Classroom* or a teacher's manual supplied by the Johns Hopkins Center. Materials are made by teachers and should include an expert sheet and a quiz for each course unit.

### Personnel and Training Required:

Jigsaw I usually requires only a one-day workshop. Jigsaw II may require more training (contact Aronson).

### Contacts:

Ruth Carter, Johns Hopkins Team Learning Project, Center for Organization of Schools, Johns Hopkins University, 3505 North Charles Street, Baltimore, Maryland 21218, (301) 338-8249.

Elliott Aronson, University of California at Santa Cruz, Santa Cruz, California 95064, (408) 429-0111.

### References/Resources:


Aronson, Elliott. *Jigsaw I: The Jigsaw Classroom*. Beverly Hills, California: Sage Publications, 1978.

Lucker, G. William, et al. "Performance in the Interdependent Classroom: A Field Study." *American Educational Research Journal*, Vol. 13, No. 2 (1976), pp. 115-23.

Slavin, Robert E. *Report on Cooperative Learning: Student Teams*. Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1982.

Ziegler, S. *Jigsaw II: The Effectiveness of Cooperative Learning Teams for Increasing Cross-Ethnic Friendships—Additional Evidence*. Unpublished manuscript, University of Toronto, 1980.

**Purpose:**
To provide positive social interaction of team learning while enabling students to learn mathematics at their own pace.

# Team Assisted Individualization (TAI)

## A STUDENT TEAM LEARNING TECHNIQUE

**Rationale:**
Students may benefit both socially and academically in a small team setting. Simultaneously, they receive the individualized instruction often necessary for mastering progressive math skills.

**Target Audience:**
Students in grades K through 12.

**Description:**
Team Assisted Individualization (TAI) is a comprehensive approach to mathematics instruction that combines team learning and individualized instruction. As in other team learning techniques, students are assigned to either four or six-member heterogeneous teams. Students take a diagnostic test to determine their unit placement for math skills.

Each team follows a regular sequence of activities using skill sheets for each subskill. Students work in pairs to master skills until each individual scores 80 percent or better on the checkout test. The partners assist and check each other until the final test, which is scored by a student monitor. While students help one another, the teacher is able to work with individuals and small groups on specific problems.

The team score is compiled from the student's test score and the number of tests completed in a week. Because team standards are preset, any number of teams may receive certificates for exceeding those standards.

TAI is unique in cooperative learning methods because it uses individual rather than class-paced instruction. It is most useful in classes too heterogeneous to be taught the same material at the same rate of speed.

**Evidence of Effectiveness:**
TAI is the most recently developed Student Team Learning method. This learning technique was evaluated following a pilot test in 1980. In a 1981 eight-week controlled experiment. TAI students gained .44 grade equivalents compared with a .22 gain in the control group. Students also developed more positive attitudes regarding mathematics, gained self-esteem, and showed more positive responses to classmates and more suitable behavior. Subsequent studies verified these results (see the Teacher's Manual).

**Materials Needed:**
The TAI Mathematics Kit which contains curriculum materials, a teacher's manual, the Computerized Testing Service for one class for the first year, and the Teacher Material Box ($480).

**Personnel and Training Required:**
Teachers must be trained to use the materials. Training may be purchased from the Johns Hopkins Center.

**Contacts:**
Marshall Leavey, Team Assisted Individualization Project, Johns Hopkins University, 3505 North Charles Street, Baltimore, Maryland 21218, (301) 338-8249.

**References/Resources:**
Slavin, Robert E. *Cooperative Learning: Student Teams*. Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1982.

Slavin, Robert E., Marshall Leavey, and Nancy A. Madden. *Team Assisted Individualization: Mathematics Teacher's Manual*. Rev. ed. Baltimore, Maryland: Johns Hopkins University, Center for Social Organization of Schools, 1982.

## Instructional

Cooperative Learning (Johnson & Johnson Model)
Student Team Learning
Jigsaw I & II
Team Assisted Individualization
**Teams-Games-Tournaments**
Student Teams-Achievement Divisions
DISTAR (Direct Instructional System for Teaching Arithmetic and Reading)
Interactive Teaching
Mastery Learning
Ounce Classroom Management Program
Proactive Classroom Management

# Teams-Games-Tournaments (TGT)

## A STUDENT TEAM LEARNING TECHNIQUE

**Purpose:**

To improve academic performance, to unite students as team members, and to encourage students to care about one another's academic progress.

**Rationale:**

Students are able to assist each other in mastering information, in gathering information, and in offering positive reinforcement for success.

**Target Audience:**

Students in grades 3 through 9.

**Description:**

The Teams-Games-Tournaments (TGT) technique uses weekly tournaments rather than quizzes (as does STAD) to test mastery of facts and information. The technique can be used with any type of objective material.

TGT is the most exciting and enjoyable of the Student Team Learning techniques. Teams of four or five members with diverse skills and backgrounds use worksheets to help understand and master material presented by the teacher. Students compete in weekly tournaments at tables with members of other teams who are comparable based on past performance. High performance students, therefore, compete only against other high performance students. Students are not told which tournament table is the highest or lowest. Teams stay together for about six weeks, but tournament table assignments are changed every week to keep the competition equal. Students are evaluated against their individual past performance.

After each weekly tournament, team scores are calculated and a newsletter recognizing the highest scoring teams and tournament table winners is written and circulated.

**Evidence of Effectiveness:**

Teachers using TGT reported that students never particularly interested in school were appearing after school to obtain materials to study, asking for special assistance, and becoming active in class discussions. In 7 of 10 studies involving 3,000 students, TGT students learned significantly more than students in traditionally structured classes studying the same material. In other studies, TGT students learned slightly more than control students (DeVries and Slavin).

**Materials Needed:**

Curriculum materials from the Johns Hopkins Student Team Learning Project or teacher-made materials (a worksheet, a worksheet answer sheet, a game sheet, and a game answer sheet for each unit), and numbered cards.

**Personnel and Training Required:**

Teachers need in-service training to master this technique and those regarding cooperative learning. They should allow 30 to 40 minutes each week to compute scores and to prepare the newsletter.

**Contacts:**

Ruth Carter, Johns Hopkins Team Learning Project, Center For Social Organization of Schools, Johns Hopkins University, 3505 North Charles Street, Baltimore, Maryland 21218, (301) 338-8249.

**References/Resources:**

Same as STAD. DeVries, David L., and R.E. Slavin. "Teams-Games-Tournaments (TGT): Review of Ten Classroom Experiments." *Journal of Research and Development in Education*, Vol. 12 (1978), pp. 28-38.

# Student Teams-Achievement Divisions (STAD)

## A STUDENT TEAM LEARNING TECHNIQUE

**Purpose:**
To increase academic performance, to guarantee success, and to encourage students to care about one another's academic progress.

**Rationale:**
Students working for a cooperative goal will encourage and help one another to achieve, to learn, and to like and respect one another.

**Target Audience:**
Students in grades 3 through 9.

**Description:**
STAD is the simplest of the Student Team Learning techniques and is best suited for objective material. Students are assigned to four- or five- member learning teams. Each team is a microcosm of the class and is diversified by ability, sex, race, and ethnic background. Each week the teacher introduces new material to all teams. Using teacher-prepared worksheets, each team chooses whatever means it wishes to understand the material.

After team practice, students are tested individually, with their quiz points contributing to a group score. Individual scores are determined by the improvement over the student's own past quiz week recognizes the highest scoring team and the most improved individual scores.

**Evidence of Effectiveness:**
STAD has been evaluated in six studies involving more than 2,000 students in grades 3 through 9. In four studies, STAD was more effective than traditional methods in increasing learning of basic skills; in the other two studies, it was equally effective. Researchers also document increased comraderie with students helping each other, improving their view of the teacher as a resource, and beginning to see learning as a cooperative rather than independent activity. These positive results apply to all types of team learning. Studies are cited in *Using Student Team Learning* and the *Teacher's Manual.* Also see previous instruction strategies on Student Team Learning.

**Materials Needed:**
Teacher training manual, curriculum materials designed by the Johns Hopkins Learning Project; or teacher-made materials which include a worksheet, an answer sheet, and a quiz for each unit.

**Personnel and Training Required:**
Teachers need in-service training to understand the techniques of cooperative learning, the STAD manual, and the step-by-step procedures. They need to spend 30 to 40 minutes each week calculating team scores and preparing the newsletter.

**Contacts:**
Ruth Carter, Johns Hopkins Team Learning Project, Center for Social Organization of Schools, Johns Hopkins University, 3505 North Charles Street, Baltimore, Maryland 21218, (301) 338-8249.

**References/Resources:**
Slavin, Robert E. *Using Student Team Learning.* Rev. ed. Baltimore, Maryland: Johns Hopkins Team Learning Project, Center for Social Organization of Schools, 1980.

"Student Teams and Achievement Divisions." *Journal of Research and Development in Education*, Vol. 12 (1978), pp. 39-49.

## Instructional

Cooperative Learning (Johnson & Johnson Model)
Student Team Learning
Jigsaw I & II
Team Assisted Individualization
Teams-Games-Tournaments
Student Teams-Achievement Divisions
**DISTAR (Direct Instructional System for Teaching Arithmetic and Reading)**
Interactive Teaching
Mastery Learning
Ounce Classroom Management Program
Proactive Classroom Management

**Purpose:**
To teach children who have not learned basic reading or mathematics skills.

**Rationale:**
Children learn what they are taught; the basic skills and concepts are the same for all children. Because I.Q. is a function of teaching, it is possible to teach necessary skills and concepts by means of a suitable instructional program.

# DISTAR (Direct Instructional System for Teaching Arithmetic and Reading)

**Target Audience:**
Pre-school and primary children who have difficulty learning from other materials. Although designed to provide beginning and remedial instruction to disadvantaged children, the method has been used for other instructional purposes.

**Description:**
DISTAR is a highly structured, synthetic method of instruction that aims to teach more in less time. The program is designed to teach a set of building blocks that can produce a large set of applications. The method places heavy emphasis on structure, programmed learning, drill, and repetition.

The DISTAR programs state educational objectives as a series of specific tasks. The reading process is broken down into discrete components which each student must master in order to complete each task. The teacher sets the pace so that each child feels a sense of accomplishment and satisfaction while achieving a high degree of accuracy.

The teacher conducts evaluations based on successful completion of objectives and on tests incorporated into the program. Skill reinforcement and rewards are built into the system. The program is designed to assist not only those students who require recycling procedures, but also those who are able to progress more rapidly.

DISTAR reading is composed of three parts, with 159 presentations of approximately 30 minutes each. DISTAR I teaches letter and phonemic sounds, blending, word reading, letter and word writing, and sentence and paragraph reading. DISTAR Reading II adds specific comprehension skills and question-answering techniques. DISTAR Reading III concentrates on reading in science and social studies. DISTAR Math programs I, II, and III also are available.

**Evidence of Effectiveness:**
A number of studies indicate that young children show increased ability as measured on I.Q. tests. In an extensive University of Oregon study of comparative models, the direct instructional method used for disadvantaged students was significantly more effective than other models in achieving basic academic goals in both verbal and math areas and in affective outcomes. In evaluations carried out in Chicago and Bridgeport, Connecticut, teachers reported that DISTAR was an especially effective program for slow and average learners and that they liked the format structure and ease of teaching. They felt the program was ineffective with all children, that it was ineffective in teaching reading comprehension, and that it did not foster more interest than other programs. Many suggested either

using DISTAR in combination with other programs or making some modifications to reinforce weak areas (see References/Resources).

### Materials Needed:

Teacher's Kit, which includes all equipment and materials, student sets of materials; movable chairs; and a phonograph for teacher training.

### Personnel and Training Required:

In-service training is essential. A two-day workshop typically precedes the introduction of DISTAR. Periodic in-service sessions follow in the early months and throughout the year. Teacher training materials include a participant's manual and a trainer's manual. Usually teacher aides are used in DISTAR classrooms.

### Contacts:

Karen Suhadolnik, Project Administrator, Science Research Associates, 155 North Wacker, Chicago, Illinois 60606, (312) 984-7000.

### References/Resources:


*A Sourcebook of Elementary Curricula Programs and Projects*. Ed. Samuel H. Henrie. San Francisco: Far West Laboratory for Educational Research and Development, 1972.

*DISTAR Instructional System*. Ed. M.B. Gordon. Chicago: Science Research Associates, 1971.

*DISTAR Orientation, Participant's Manual*. Rev. ed. Chicago: Science Research Associates, 1971.

Engleman, Siegfried, and Douglas Carmine. *Theory of Instruction: Principals and Application*. New York: Irvington, 1982.

Engleman, Siegfried, and Elaine C. Bruner. *DISTAR Reading, Teacher's Guide*. Chicago: Science Research Associates, 1969.

Lakey, Benjamin B., and Alan E. Kazdin. "Direct Instruction: An Effective Approach to Educational Intervention with Disadvantaged and Low-Performers." *Advances in Clinical Child Psychology*, Vol. 3 (1980), pp. 429-472.


"Key assumptions of the model are:

- That all children can be taught (the teacher is responsible);
- That to 'catch up' low-performing students must be taught more, not less; and
- That the task of teaching more requires a careful use of educational technology and of time."

W. C. Becker and
D. W. Carnine,
University of Oregon

# Interactive Teaching

**Purpose:**

To increase the opportunity for students to attain and display academic competence.

**Rationale:**

Interactive teaching involves a set of concepts based on the theories of John Carroll and Benjamin Bloom that incorporates aspects of learning theory and research into a practical and systematic approach to teaching. It is based on a philosophy about teaching which asserts that, under appropriate conditions, all students can and will learn most of what they are taught.

**Target Audience:**

Elementary and secondary school teachers.

**Description:**

Interactive Teaching is based on the assumption that each student can master a given task if given the appropriate time and instructional conditions. In Interactive Teaching, teachers consciously plan lessons to adjust the external conditions of the classroom—the time allowed and quality of instruction—thereby influencing students' opportunities for academic success.

This systematic and consistent approach to teaching includes six major steps:

1. Know what you intend for students to learn.
2. Evaluate prior learning and proper placement.
3. Provide learning activities.
4. Diagnose progress.
5. Offer additional learning time and activities.
6. Evaluate mastery of subject.

**Evidence of Effectiveness:**

Schools implementing Interactive Teaching as part of the School Enhancement Research and Development Project reported significant improvement in achievement of basic skills.

**Materials Needed:**

A trainer's manual and participant's workbook have been developed by the Westinghouse National Issues Center and the Center for Law and Justice, at the University of Washington in Seattle (see Contacts).

**Personnel and Training Required:**

This program may benefit teachers from all disciplines. Neither special certification nor experience is required. A four- to five-day training workshop can be provided by an experienced curriculum specialist using the materials listed below.

**Contacts:**

Carol Cummings, 331 Eighth Avenue South, Edmonds, Washington 98020, (206) 774-0755.

Dr. Douglas M. Kerr, Center for Law and Justice JD-45, University of Washington, Seattle, Washington 99195, (206) 543-1485.

**References/Resources:**

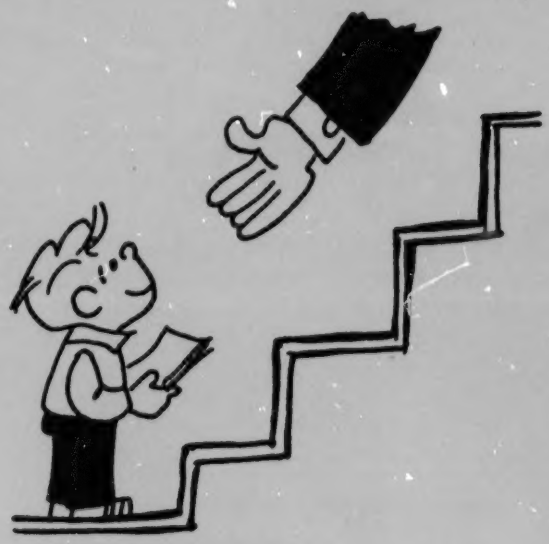
Bloom, Benjamin. *Human Characteristics and School Learning*. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1976.

Carroll, John B. "A Model of School Learning." *Teachers College Record*, Vol. 64 (1963), pp. 723-33.

*Interactive Teaching Trainer's Manual* and *Teacher's Manual*, Center for Law and Justice JD-45, University of Washington, Seattle, Washington 99195.

**Purpose:**
To increase the proportion of students who experience academic success, to increase the likelihood of student commitment to educational goals, to promote the student's confidence, and to increase the student's attachment to teachers and non delinquent peers.

# Mastery Learning



**Rationale:**
Given enough time and materials and appropriate instructional conditions, virtually all students can and will learn most of what they are taught.

**Target Audience:**
All students in the school.

**Description:**
Mastery Learning represents a combination of approaches that successful teachers have used. It incorporates step-by-step learning materials, initial diagnostic testing, detailed records of student progress, and individual assistance. Success results from thorough planning and early organization of instruction. Students must advance to a predetermined level, usually about 80 percent mastery as demonstrated by testing. Work units are broken into specific, short instructional sequences. Frequent rewards encourage students to reach the established objectives. All students achieve at their own pace. Remediation activities are used to bring a student's performance up to mastery. Teachers provide enrichment activities for those who have reached the mastery level. Student evaluations are based on what the student has learned rather than on comparisons with other students. The strategy works well in combination with cooperative learning techniques.

Frequent evaluations indicate the degree of mastery and reduce the risk of failure. Individual remediation and additional instruction help students to overcome difficulties.

**Evidence of Effectiveness:**
The Mastery Learning approach has consistently improved student learning under a wide variety of classroom conditions and environments (Block, Peterson). Users report positive attitudes toward learning and improved self-concepts (Arricale).

**Materials Needed:**
Regular curriculum materials analyzed and broken into teachable parts to meet mastery objectives.

**Personnel and Training Required:**
Teachers must be trained to analyze classroom materials, to develop learning objectives, and to prepare and use formative and summary evaluations.

**Contacts:**
Dr. Benjamin Bloom, Professor, University of Chicago, School of Education, Chicago, Illinois 60680.

Dr. James Block, Department of Education, University of California, Santa Barbara, California 93106.

Jim Weyand, Principal, Bill Reed Junior High, 370 West Fourth Street, Loveland, Colorado 80537, (303) 667-5136.

### References/Resources:


Arricale, Frank C., II. "A Case for Chicago Mastery Learning Reading." *Learning*. February 1983, pp. 92-94.

Block, James H. "Mastery Learning: The Current State of the Craft." *Educational Leadership*, November 1979, pp. 114-117.

Hunter, Madeline. *Mastery Teaching*. El Segundo, California: TIP Publications, 1982.

*Mastery Learning: Theory and Practice*. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1971.

*Outcomes*, The quarterly newsletter of The Network for Outcome-Based Schools. c/o Far West Laboratory, 1855 Folsom Street, San Francisco, California 94103.

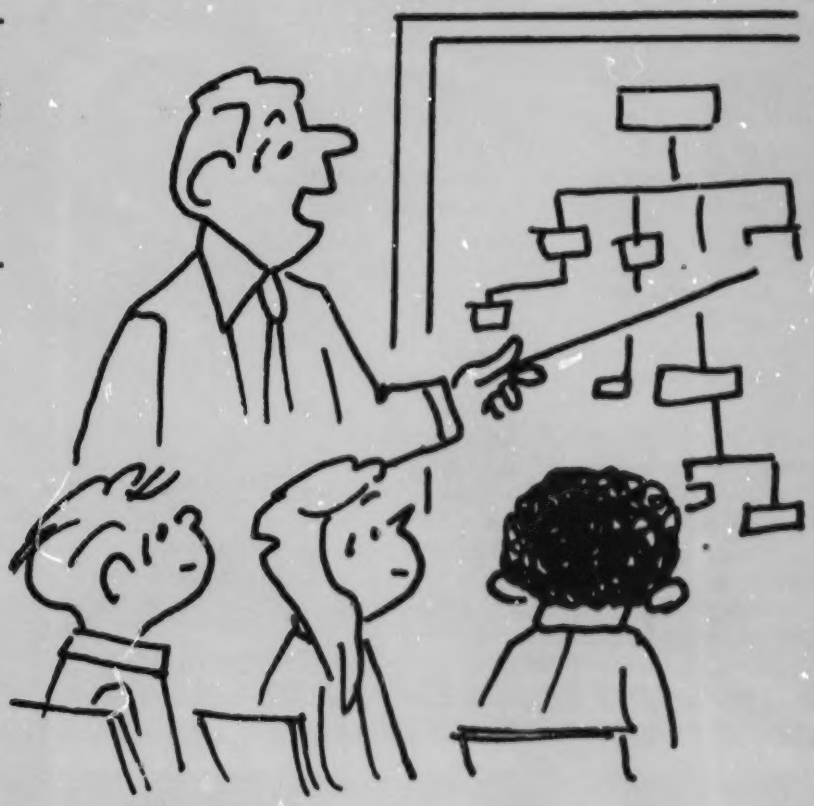
Peterson, P. *Review of Research on Mastery Learning Strategies*. Stockholm: International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement, 1972.

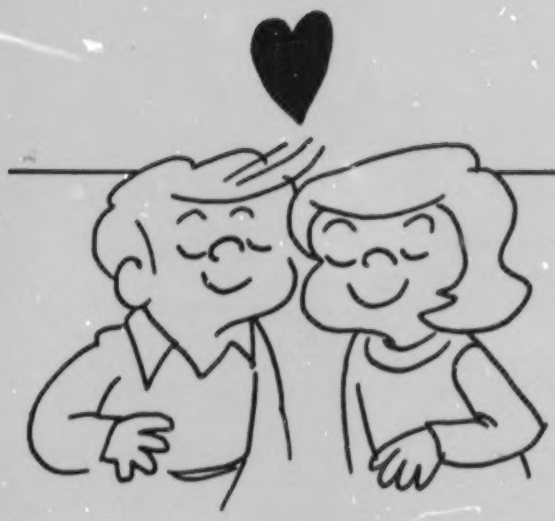

### Videotape Series


Hunter, Madeline. *Mastery Teaching*. Available from Instructional Dynamics, Inc., 845 Via de la Paz, Suite A177, Pacific Palisades, California 90272, (203) 454-3061.


***"Mastery learning is based on the premise that a student can master any given learning task—if the child simply is allowed to succeed at his or her own rate rather than on a fixed time schedule."***

Dan Kaercher,
Educational Consultant





# Ounce Classroom Management Program

**Purpose:**

To instruct and support classroom teachers in applying a wide range of strategies and techniques to effectively manage the behavior of individual students as well as small and large groups.

**Rationale:**

OUNCE techniques help improve the classroom environment for students and teachers through use of approval responses and attention, verbal cues, body language, and physical contact. The result is positive behavior.

**Target Audience:**

All staff members at the elementary and middle or junior high school level, including special education teachers.

**Description:**

The OUNCE model involves identifying problems, using behavior rating scales, developing a support system for teachers, building students' academic successes, and using a wide range of classroom management techniques. The four basic OUNCE objectives are to:

- Promote the positive emotional and social development of students.
- Establish suitable and effective behavioral control through planned procedures.
- Encourage self-initiated positive behavior in students.
- Support positive relationships with students in the classroom, which enhances the learning process.

Teachers are taught 19 specific techniques for accomplishing the program aims.

**Evidence of Effectiveness:**

The OUNCE program is now in use in 425 schools in 15 states. In all of the studies conducted, target youth showed significant improvement regarding both the attitudinal and behavioral scales within the first year. Involved teachers strongly recommend the program.

**Materials Needed:**

OUNCE classroom management videotapes, consultant manual, and teacher handbook. All of the materials are available from the OUNCE Center at the address noted under "Contacts."

**Personnel and Training Required:**

A consultant/trainer must participate in a three-day workshop. Staff members are then trained in a course of 30 single-hour units, each of which is subdivided into three components, as follows:

| *Minutes* | *Component* |
|---|---|
| 0-12 | Reciprocal Feedback and Problem Solving |
| 13-54 | Presentation and Demonstration |
| 55-60 | Evaluation. |

**Contacts:**

Sharon Hicks, Director, National OUNCE Center, 2418 Hatton Street, Sarasota, Florida 33577, (813) 953-5000 x227.

Joyce Russell, Affective Education Specialist, School Board of Palm Beach County, 3323 Belvedere Road, West Palm Beach, Florida 33402, (305) 684-5082.

**Instructional**

Cooperative Learning (Johnson & Johnson Model)
Student Team Learning
Jigsaw I & II
Team Assisted Individualization
Teams-Games-Tournaments
Student Teams-Achievement Divisions
DISTAR (Direct Instructional System for Teaching Arithmetic and Reading)
Interactive Teaching
Mastery Learning
Ounce Classroom Management Program
**Proactive Classroom Management**

# Proactive Classroom Management

**Purpose:**

To assist teachers in the effective management of students by giving them the skills necessary to prevent problems before they occur, to find alternatives to punishment, and to encourage students to develop self-discipline.

**Rationale:**

The teacher who effectively manages the various activities of a classroom, such as delivery of instruction, student participation, and administrative details, has more time to teach content and to spend more productive time on task for students. Used in conjunction with mastery learning and interactive teaching, this program assumes that achievement and discipline will improve to the extent that the delivery of instruction improves. Less time will then be spent on discipline problems.

**Target Audience:**

Elementary and junior high school teachers.

**Description:**

The Proactive Classroom Management approach is based on principles of learning and motivation, including those of Madeline Hunter, Jere Brophy, Edmund Emmer, and Carolyn Evertson. Effective classroom management involves teachers behaving in ways that produce high levels of student involvement in classroom activities, minimal interference with the teacher's or other students' work, and efficient use of instructional time. In the proactive classroom management approach, the following techniques consistent with a humane and interactive approach to discipline are encouraged:

- Establishing clear rules and limits.
- Using signaling techniques.
- Using praise appropriately.
- Giving directions.
- Exercising control through proximity.
- Varying classroom activities.
- Improving routine management activities.

**Evidence of Effectiveness:**

Studies in selected Seattle schools as part of The School Enhancement Research and Development Project showed that, in those classrooms where teachers were trained in proactive management, there were fewer discipline problems and a substantial increase in time available for teaching. (Contact the Center for Law and Justice for details. Other evidence is cited by Brophy and Emmer and Evertson.)

**Materials Needed:**

Training manual and list of readings.

**Personnel and Training Required:**

A two-day initial workshop is followed by periodic refresher workshops and sometimes visits by a staff development consultant or trainer. Teachers, parent volunteers, and aides could all benefit from training in this area.

**Contacts:**

Carol Cummings, 331 Eighth Avenue, South, Edmonds, Washington 98020, (206) 774-0755.

Eugene R. Howard, Director, School Improvement/ Leadership Unit, Colorado Department of Education, 301 West Colfax Avenue, Denver, Colorado 80203, (303) 534-6871.

***"We have evidence that teachers can be trained to use time more wisely in the classroom through proactive management techniques. This alternative should be explored before extending the number of instructional days for students."***

Carol Cummings
Teacher Trainer, Seattle, Washington.

**References/Resources:**


Brophy, Jere. "Teacher Behavior and Its Effects." *Journal of Teacher Education*, Vol. 71 (1979), pp. 733-750.

Brophy, Jere, and C. Evertson. *Learning from a Developmental Perspective*. Boston: Allyn and Bacon, 1976.

Cummings, Carol. *Managing to Teach*. Snohomich, Washington: Snohomich Publishing Company, 1983.

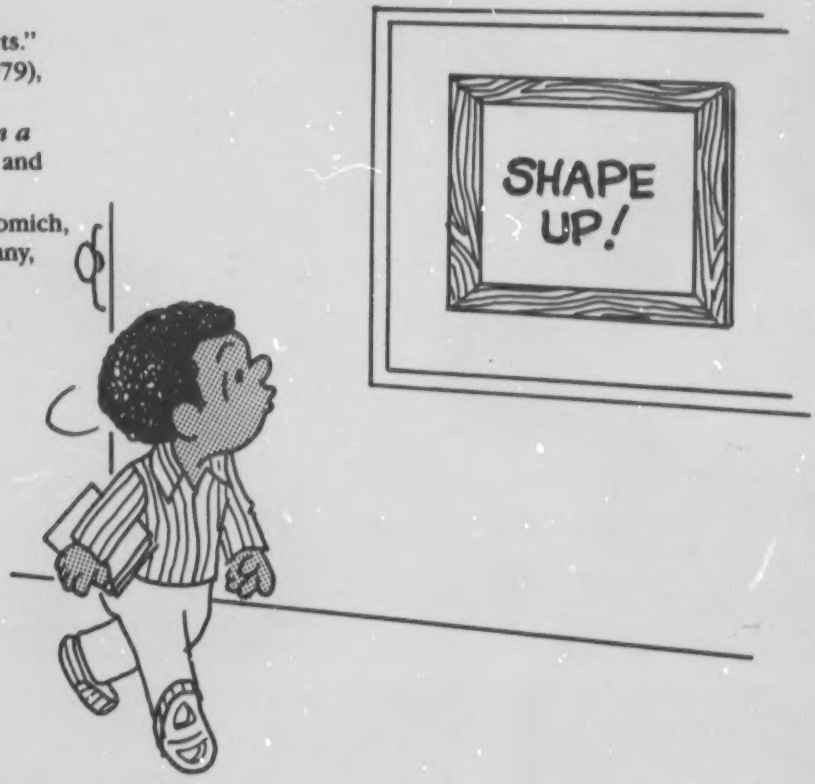
Emmer, Edmund, and C. Evertson. "Synthesis of Research on Classroom Management." *Educational Research*, Vol. 38, No. 4 (1981), pp. 342-347.

Howard, Eugene. *School Discipline Desk Book*. West Nyack, New York: Parker Publishing Co., 1978.

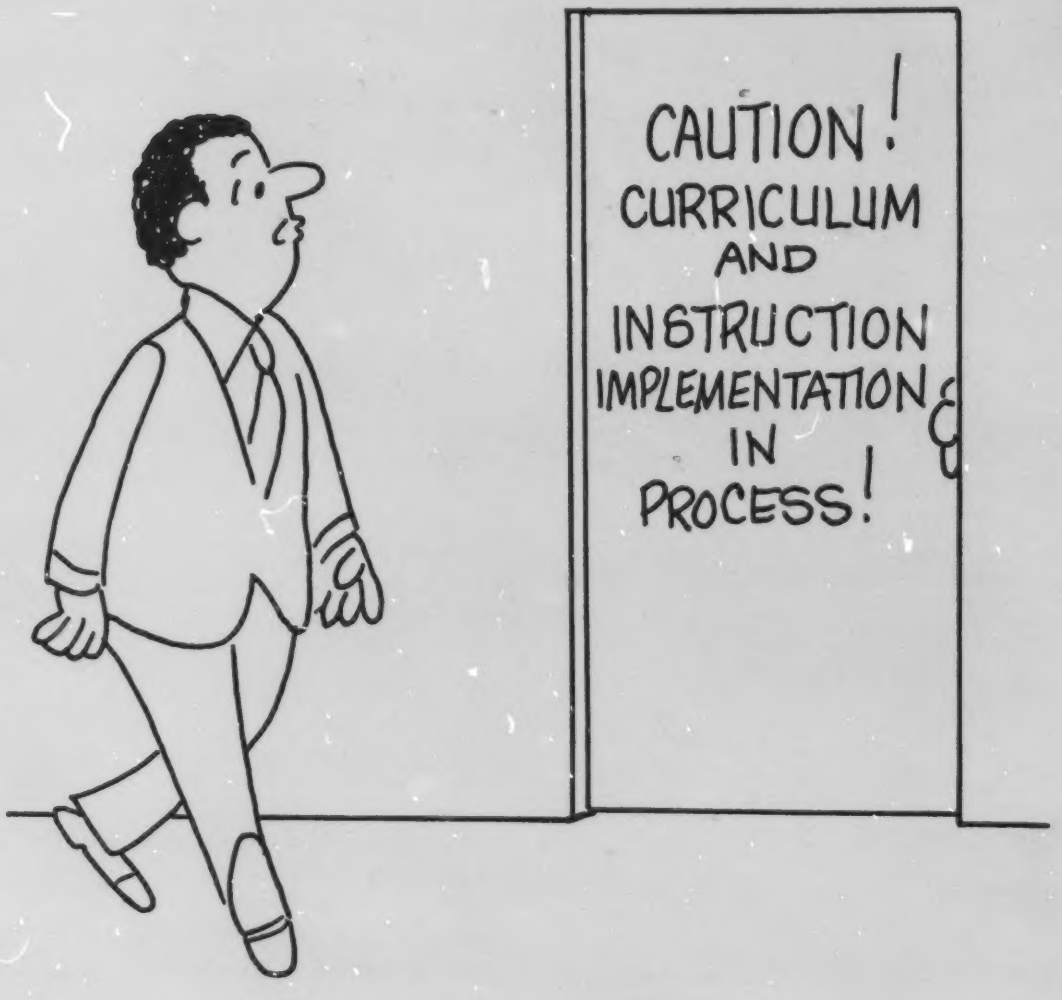
Hunter, Madeline. *RX: Improved Instruction*. El Sequndo, California: TIP Publications, 1976.

*Proactive Classroom Management Trainers Manual*. Washington, D.C.: School Enhancement Research and Demonstration Project, Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention, June 1981.

"School Discipline—Helping the Teacher." *The Practitioner*, National Association of Secondary School Principals, Vol. 8, No. 4 (May 1982).

# Curricula


CAUTION!
CURRICULUM
AND
INSTRUCTION
IMPLEMENTATION
IN
PROCESS!

# Classroom Learning to Attain Social Skills (CLASS)

**Purpose:**

To assist classroom teachers in developing a preventative guidance program for students in kindergarten and in first, second, and third grades.

**Rationale:**

Teachers can improve the social climate in the classroom by encouraging learner participation in lessons and activities that are designed to promote positive growth in three areas: friendship, communication, and cooperation.

**Target Audience:**

Classroom teachers in kindergarten and in first, second, and third grades.

**Description:**

Project CLASS provides a perspective for evaluating the social climate within a classroom and a plan to develop better interactions and positive learning. It emphasizes regularly scheduled, weekly activities that improve communication and cooperative skills. The graded lesson plans clearly state the goals of each activity, provide materials to be used in conducting the lesson, and give step-by-step directions for conducting and debriefing the activity. The lessons are planned sequentially and have been field-tested within actual classrooms. *The CLASS Handbook* provides management techniques and strategies to help teachers structure reinforcement activities.

The project also has developed a plan for schools wishing to offer a parent program, which includes a guide for a four-session parent education group. Project staff also produce a monthly newsletter focused on child development topics (Spanish editions are available).

**Evidence of Effectiveness:**

Project CLASS was evaluated by Edward Vacha in the Orcutt Union School District during the 1980-81 school year. Results showed greater positive movement for student, teacher, and parent objectives for the project group when measured against comparison groups. A summary of the evaluation is contained in *The Teacher's Handbook* (see References/Resources).

**Materials Needed:**

*A Teacher's Handbook*, a *Facilitator Guide*, and an optional *Parent Guide*, all developed by the project staff.

**Personnel and Training Required:**

Classroom teachers, special education teachers, and elementary counselors need to be trained. Project consultants are available to conduct one-day in-service training. The *Facilitator Guide* can be used for pre-service and in-service sessions, usually as an aid to facilitator/implementer training.

**Contacts:**

Sandra Eyler, Project Director, Orcutt Union School District, P.O. Box 2310, Orcutt, California 93455, (805) 937-6345.

**References/Resources:**

Coburn, Joan, Sandra Eyler, and Carol Hoagland. *Project CLASS Parent Guide* ($6.50); Spanish newsletter ($2.50).

Eyler, Sandra, Carol Hoagland, and Edward Vacha. *Project CLASS Facilitator Guide* ($5.50).

Hoagland, Carol, Sandra Eyler, and Edward Vacha. *CLASS Teacher's Handbook* ($15.00).

Vacha, Edward. *Evaluation of Project CLASS*. Sacramento, California:
California Department of Education, 1982.

# Be a Hero—Stay Drug Free!

**Purpose:**
To develop a drug-free generation of American youth.

**Rationale:**
There is an unacceptable level of drug and alcohol abuse among young people in the United States. One of the best weapons against substance abuse is effectively communicating the truth about drugs and alcohol to users and potential users.

**Target Audience:**
Students in grades 4 through 6.

**Description:**
This program, developed in cooperation with the President's Drug Awareness Campaign, features The New Teen Titans, Superheroes, in specially created comic books. The familiar characters and easy to follow format present a different, realistic view of the dangers of drug use. A different comic book is available for each grade. Each class set of 30 books comes with a teacher's guide, certificates for students who complete the program, and a classroom poster.

The teacher's guide outlines exercises to assist students in resisting peer pressure, and making appropriate decisions about drugs and alcohol. Suggested activities develop independent thinking and encourage talking and writing about their views. Clarifying feelings also helps to open communication lines with parents and other adults. Students are encouraged to make a personal declaration that will reinforce their positive attitudes and identity.

The Keebler Corporation, IBM, and The National Soft Drink Association, sponsor the comic books in cooperation with the National Federation of Parents for a Drug-Free Youth, and DC Comics.

**Evidence of Effectiveness:**
This program was implemented in 1983. The classroom packages have been sent to 35,000 schools across the country. Comments by administrators, teachers, parents, and students are encouraging. Three-quarters of a million requests were received after the first comic book was produced.

**Materials Needed:**
The classroom package available upon written request from the contact listed below. Specify grade of package requested. One classroom package per school for each grade.

**Personnel and Training Required:**
The classroom teacher can conduct the program using the teacher's guide.

**Contacts:**
Stephen Jacobs, 1301 Constitution Avenue, N.W., Room 4122, Washington, D.C. 20229 (Written requests only).

## Curricula

Classroom Learning to Attain Social Skills
Be A Hero—Stay Drug Free!
**Experience-Based Career Education**
Law-Related Education
Law in a Free Society
Ombudsman: A Classroom Community
Project S.E.L.F. (Securing Every Learner's Future)
Work as a Topic of Study

# Experience-Based Career Education (EBCE)

**Purpose:**

To help youth make a smooth transition from high school to the world of work by increasing self-confidence; learning responsibility; recognizing career opportunities; seeing connections between "learning" and "earning"; and improving their academic, survival, and employability skills.

The program provides a transition between the school and work world by linking academic curricula with work experience. As a result, youths are more prepared to take on the responsibility of adult employment roles as well as to qualify for and find jobs in areas which are of interest to them.

**Rationale:**

EBCE creates an active partnership between education and the local business community. By establishing personal relationships with local employers, students use their high school years to prepare effectively for further education or for immediate employment.

**Target Audience:**

EBCE was designed for youth in grades 9 through 12 in a traditional or alternate setting, but also has been used successfully with students in grades 7 and 8, with disadvantaged, migrant, gifted/talented, and handicapped youth, as well as with young women considering nontraditional careers, and with adults.

**Description:**

EBCE can be a full-time alternative program separate from the comprehensive school, a "school-within-a-school," or a part-time option to supplement the traditional instruction. Regardless of the structure, EBCE is: individualized and personalized, community-based, experience-based, and performance-based. It features a comprehensive curriculum, including basic and academic skills, but stresses career planning and development of employment skills.

Students spend approximately half of their EBCE time at local "employer" sites. Their activities include three-day career explorations, four to six weeks of learning levels (also called internships), demonstration of survival skill competency, and career seminars. The other half of EBCE time is spent working on basic skills and related academic work. All of these activities are highly structured and are tailored to individual student abilities, interests, and learning styles. Students learn time-management and career planning skills and are expected to assume increasing responsibility. When students complete EBCE activities, they receive a regular high school diploma.

### Evidence of Effectiveness:

Programs have been successful in Charleston, West Virginia; Fond du Lac, Wisconsin; and Philadelphia, Pennsylvania. Comprehensive evaluation studies reveal student growth in career awareness and employability skills, as well as in academic skills. Parents and private employers, as well as students, assess the program positively. Summaries of evaluation findings are available upon request from the Northwest Regional Educational Laboratory. EBCE is discussed also in terms of delinquency prevention in Wall, et al., pp. 43-47 (see References/ Resources).

### Materials Needed:

Descriptive material and telephone consultations are available at no cost. Other materials are available at cost:

*EBCE Implementation Handbook*—five-volume set

I. Management and Organization

II. Curriculum and Instruction

III. Employer and Community Resources

IV. Student Services

V. Evaluation

*Community Resource Person's Guide for Experience-Based Learning*

*Project Ideabook: Sample Student Projects Using the Community as a Learning Resource*

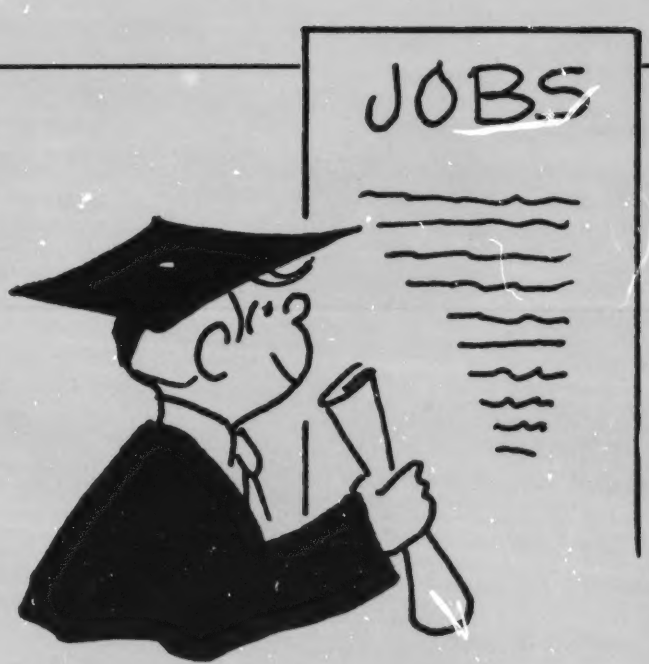
*Student Competencies Guide: Survival Skills for a Changing World*

*Student Guide to Writing a Journal*

*Student Record of Community Exploration.*

### Personnel and Training Required:

An EBCE program requires at least one certified teacher to grant academic credit and a community relations specialist to coordinate student experiences in the community. Staff participation in program planning and training (three to five days) is recommended.




### Contacts:

Larry McClure, Program Director, Education and Work Program, Northwest Regional Educational Laboratory, 300 Southwest Sixth Avenue, Portland, Oregon 97204, (800) 547-6339 Ext. 430 (toll free) or (503) 248-6800 Ext. 430.

EBCE Dissemination Project, Ted Kildegaard, Director, 1926 Divisadero Street, San Francisco, California 94115, (415) 567-2330.

Fran Ruhlin-Cloyd, National EBCE Association, c/o Fayette County Public Schools, Office of Career Education, 701 East Main Street, Lexington, Kentucky 40502, (609) 259-1411 Ext. 311.

### References/Resources:

Wall, John S., J. David Hawkins, Denise Lisher, and Mark Fraser. *Juvenile Delinquency: A Compendium of 36 Program Models.* Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1981.

**Curricula**

Classroom Learning to Attain Social Skills
Be A Hero—Stay Drug Free!
Experience-Based Career Education
**Law-Related Education**
Law in a Free Society
Ombudsman: A Classroom Community
Project S.E.L.F. (Securing Every Learner's Future)
Work as a Topic of Study

# Law-Related Education (LRE)

**Purpose:**

To gain an understanding of basic law and the legal process as well as the fundamental principles on which our legal and political systems are based; to be able to examine these laws critically and to relate them to individual duties, rights, and responsibilities.

**Rationale:**

An understanding and appreciation of the legal system and acceptance for the rule of law is a critical component of preparation for citizenship, and a basic function of education in a free society.

**Target Audience:**

Students in grades K through 12.

**Description:**

Law-Related Education is a program that emphasizes teaching accurate legal information, decision-making skills, and the personal and community consequences of juvenile delinquency. A variety of programs exist in schools in all 50 states. More than 30 states have statewide LRE projects that provide curriculum packets, training, and technical assistance to community resource people. State educational agencies and state bar associations typically are involved in program development, training, and dissemination activities.

Class sessions and activities focus on constitutional issues and on rights and responsibilities of both groups and individuals. Students may visit courts, police stations, and correctional institutions; conduct mock trials; and discuss laws related to drugs, alcohol, and juvenile delinquency.

**Evidence of Effectiveness:**

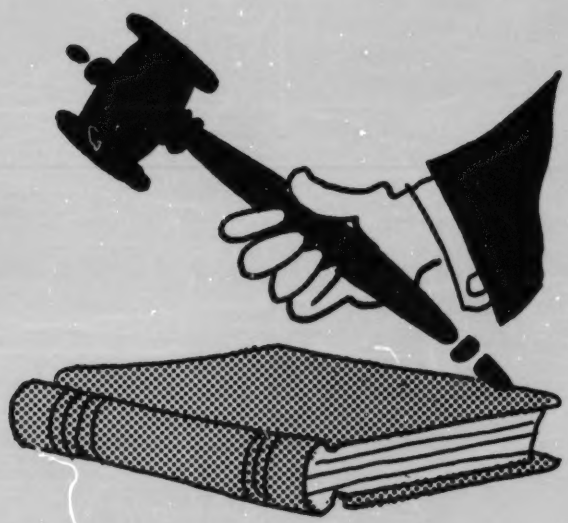
According to a national study conducted in 1981 by the Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention, Law-Related Education, when taught properly, reduces students' tendencies to resort to violence, enhances their understanding of our legal system, and develops more constructive attitudes toward it.

**Materials Needed:**

A variety of materials is available from commercial publishers as well as from national, state, and local LRE projects. The range of materials includes films, filmstrips, textbooks, supplementary pamphlets, and limited computer software. *Law in a Free Society* (the following curriculum strategy) is one example.

**Personnel and Training Required:**

National, state, and local law-related programs provide extensive in-service training opportunities for teachers and community resource people. The American Bar Association compiles a list of summer institutes.



**Contacts:**

Charlotte C. Anderson, Special Committee on Youth Education for Citizenship, American Bar Association, 1155 East 60th Street, Chicago, Illinios 60637, (312) 947-3965.

Lee Arbetman, Deputy Director, National Institute for Citizen Education in the Law, 605 G Street, N.W., Suite 401, Washington, D.C. 20001, (202) 347-8384.

Law-Related Evaluation Project, P.O. Box 3578, Boulder, Colorado 80303; Mary Jane Turner (303) 492-8154, and Robert Hunter (303) 443-7977.

Vivian Monroe, Executive Director, Constitutional Rights Foundation, 1510 Cotner Avenue, Los Angeles, California 90025, (213) 473-5091.

Robert E. Redding, Director, Juvenile and Delinquency Prevention Program, Phi Alpha Delta Law Fraternity International, 425 13th Street, N.W., Suite 926, Washington, D.C. 20004, (202) 737-5151.

**References/Resources:**


*Alternatives to Apathy Law-Related Education Programs for Young People*. Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention, U.S. Department of Justice, 1982. Contains a list of state contacts, resources, and materials. Available from OJJDP, 633 Indiana Avenue, N.W., Washington, D.C. 20531.

The following resources are available from the American Bar Association, Special Committee on Youth Education for Citizenship (see Contacts):

*Bibliography of Law-Related Curriculum Materials: Annotated.*

*The $$ Game: A Guidebook on the Funding of Law-Related Educational Programs.*

*Directory of Law-Related Educational Activities.*

*Gaming, An Annotated Catalogue of Law-Related Games and Simulations.*

*Media: An Annotated Catalogue of Law-Related Audio-Visual Materials.*

*Update on Law-Related Education*—a quarterly publication for teachers.

*Directory of Law-Related Education Projects*. 4th ed. (1982). Eds. Jane M. Koprowski and Gary Rivlin. American Bar Association, ABA Special Committee on Youth Education for Citizenship, 1155 East 60th Street, Chicago, Illinois 60637. Gives names, addresses, and phone numbers by state and city. Also includes national focus projects.

*A Resource Guide to Assist Lawyers and Law Students for Participation in Kindergarten through Eighth Grade Law-Related Classrooms*. Washington, D.C.: Phi Alpha Delta Fraternity, International, 1981. (This guide includes special assistance for handicapped and gifted classrooms.)

# Law in a Free Society (LFS)

**Purpose:**

To increase understanding of the fundamental principals, processes, and values essential to the preservation and improvement of our free society; to acquire the skills necessary to participate as effective and responsible citizens; and to promote the willingness to use democratic procedures for making decisions and managing conflict.

**Rationale:**

Civic education can increase an individual's capacity to act knowledgeably, effectively, and responsibly and to make choices based on respect for others and for laws and principles of a democratic society.

**Target Audience:**

Students in grades K through 12.

**Description:**

Law in a Free Society is a packaged curriculum that includes staff development materials for in-service teacher training and classroom materials for students in grades K through 12. The curriculum focuses on eight fundamental concepts: authority, responsibility, privacy, justice, participation, property, diversity, and freedom. The concepts are explored in relation to social and political problems, and provide a means to develop the conceptual and analytical skills necessary in decision making and conflict resolution. The curriculum was developed as a joint project of the State Bar of California, the University of California, and several other groups.

**Evidence of Effectiveness:**

Law in a Free Society is included in a study of the effectiveness of Law-Related Education (LRE) in delinquency prevention funded by the Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention (see SSEC-CAR below). The initial findings indicate that, when taught according to prescribed principles, LRE results in significant reduction in student participation in delinquent activities. Primarily anecdotal evaluations indicate the program fosters "feelings of efficiency, self-esteem, tolerance of diversity, and tendency to work within rules of the game." Evidence shows that skills may be transferable to other subjects. The center's program is used in schools throughout the 50 states and in Australia, New Zealand, and Canada.

**Materials Needed:**

The curriculum package.

**Personnel and Training Required:**

In-service teacher training to gain familiarity with the curriculum.

**Contacts:**

Charles Quigley, Executive Director, or Alita Letwin, Director of Educational Services, Law in a Free Society, 5115 Douglas Fir Drive, Calabasas, California 91302, (213) 340-9320.

**References/Resources:**

*A Resource Guide on Contemporary Legal Issues...For Use in Secondary Education*. Washington, D.C.: Phi Alpha Delta Law Fraternity, International, 1982.

Social Science Education Consortium for Action Research (SSEC-CAR). Law-Related Education Evaluations Project; final report (phase II, year 1). Boulder, Colorado: Law-Related Education Evaluation Project (P.O. Box 3578, Boulder, Colorado), 1981.

Wall, John S., J. David Hawkins, Denise Lishner, and Mark Fraser. *Juvenile Delinquency Prevention: A Compendium of 36 Model Programs*. U.S. Department of Justice, Law Enforcement Assistance Administration, Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention, March 1981.

**Purpose:**
To help students learn about values, to develop communication and decision-making skills, and to promote helping relationships.

**Rationale:**
Strengthening individual values and improving social skills move students away from high-risk states correlated with frequent drug use.

**Target Audience:**
Students in grades 5 through 9.

**Description:**
The Ombudsman program was designed to help offset some of the psychological problems and poor attitudes that often lead to the use of drugs. The program is comprised of three distinct phases: self-awareness, group skills, and ombudsman. The ombudsman phase is based on the Swedish concept where a government-appointed private citizen can investigate and act to correct a citizen's complaint. During this phase, students work to reevaluate their roles and relationships in both the school and the community.

**Evidence of Effectiveness:**
Sehwan Kim, Ph.D., evaluated the program and found it to be more effective regarding "hard" drugs than with "soft" or "social" drugs, such as marijuana and alcohol. The greatest effect was shown with elementary children (see Kim in References/Resources). The U.S. Department of Education has validated the program as effective for both fifth and sixth graders.

***"From the kids point of view, there is nothing like seeing someone in the flesh who is doing something and who comes in and talks about it on their level and tries to provide a little motivation."***

David Harris, Pilot
American Airlines

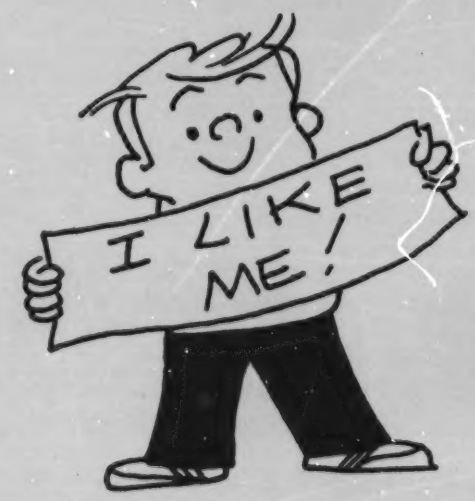
**Materials Needed:**
One Ombudsman teacher's manual for each teacher; and one package of related books and filmstrips for each school ($120).

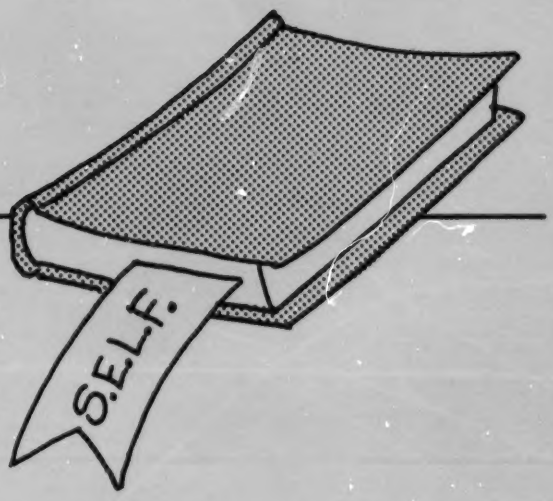
**Contacts:**
Tommie Johnson, Director, Charlotte Drug Education Center, Inc., 1416 East Morehead Street, Charlotte, North Carolina 28204, (704) 374-3211.

# Ombudsman: A Classroom Community

**Personnel and Training Required:**
A teacher must be trained to conduct the program. The training takes three days and can be conducted by program staff.

**References/Resources:**
Kim, Schwan, Ph.D. "How Do We Know Whether a Primary Prevention Program on Drug Abuse Works or Does Not Work?" *International Journal of the Addictions*, Vol. 16, No. 2 (1981).






# Project S.E.L.F. (Securing Every Learner's Future)

**Purpose:**

To develop a self-teaching program for assisting teachers and guidance counselors in improving classroom group processes and the social climate.

**Rationale:**

A positive social climate within the classroom can be developed by improving group interactions and by encouraging group spirit.

**Target Audience:**

Elementary school teachers and counselors. The project is designed specifically for fourth, fifth, and sixth-grade classes.

**Description:**

The social climate of the classroom is an important determinant of student success. Project SELF is a guidance program that focuses on the classroom as a group, rather than on individuals. It can be implemented by either a guidance counselor serving many classrooms, or by each teacher working with his or her own class. The program addresses improving the following six group processes that determine social climate: communication, attraction of friendship, leadership, classroom norms, individual expectations, and group cohesion.

The heart of the program is the weekly one-hour lesson. The complete curriculum teachers' package includes sample lesson plans designed to improve each of the group processes in the classroom. Each lesson includes a description of the goals of the lesson, an abstract, a list of materials needed, detailed step-by-step instructions for conducting the lesson, and a list of debriefing questions for conducting class discussion after the lesson. The handbook provides diagnostic testing to assess class strengths and weaknesses, and classroom management techniques to support and reinforce the lessons. Supplementary lessons are encouraged if the class has several problems in one of the group process areas.

**Evidence of Effectiveness:**

Participating classes made statistically greater gains in students' positive perceptions of their classroom than control group classes (see *Teacher's Handbook*).

**Personnel and Training Required:**

Regular classroom teachers and elementary counselors need training to implement this program. Project SELF can provide sample lesson packets, consulting services, facilitator training, and on-site training.

**Contacts:**

Sandra Eyler, Project Director, Orcutt Union School District, P.O. Box 2310, Orcutt, California 93455, (805) 937-6345 or 937-1623.

Center for Law and Justice, Joe Weis, Director, University of Washington, JD-45, Seattle, Washington 98195, (206) 543-1485.

**References/Resources:**

Vacha, Edward F. *The SELF Teacher's Handbook*, ISBN 0-03-53801-7 ($21.95).

*Improving Classroom Social Climate Filmstrip Series* to supplement *Handbook* and diagnostic tests, ISBN 0-03-56259 ($90.00).

*In-Service Trainer's Guide for Improving Classroom Social Climate*, ISBN 0-03-55541 ($2.50).

Materials may be ordered from the Order Fulfillment Department, Holt, Reinhart and Winston, 383 Madison Avenue, New York, New York 11017.

**Purpose:**

To enrich an existing curriculum or course by integrating issues and lessons that highlight people as "productive workers"; and to motivate students to believe in their own ability to succeed and to think realistically about "life after high school."

**Rationale:**

Because more than 90 percent of American adults will work for 40 years or more, it is critical for schools to help youth see the relationship between "learning" and "earning." In addition, current research indicates that delinquency could be reduced if schools would help students make a commitment to careers and to the value of work.

**Target Audience:**

Students in middle school or junior high school.

**Description:**

Work as a Topic of Study is divided into three progressive levels through which youth will develop a vision of their future and motivation for continued learning. Within this flexible sequence are numerous activities, lessons, and resources for teachers to integrate into any academic or elective course:

- ***Level I*** integrates brief references to the world of work and careers with continuing daily lesson plans.
- ***Level II*** presents classroom activities to teach team cooperation, decision making, and preparation for learning from community resource people.
- ***Level III*** exposes youth to the world of work and teaches them to use local resources to reinforce their basic course work. Activities include preparation for community-based learning, group visits to local sites, small group learning projects in the community, and half-day shadow experience.

The Teacher's Ideabook contains many successful activities for teachers to use without requiring special training or curriculum development.

**Evidence of Effectiveness:**

Work as a Topic of Study helps early adolescents to develop positive attitudes about their own potential and about the world of work. Delinquency prevention studies show that this type of commitment to social values will increase socially acceptable behavior and decrease the likelihood of delinquent behavior. Research also indicates that when youth acquire a general career awareness that leads to serious career planning, their motivation to stay in school increases.

# Work as a Topic of Study

**Materials Needed:**

Descriptive materials and telephone consultations are available at no cost. ***The Teacher's Ideabook***, developed by the Westinghouse National Issues Center, is available from the Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention.

**Personnel and Training Required:**

Teachers of any subject can effectively implement Work as a Topic of Study, and no special certification or experience is required. A two-day staff training workshop may be scheduled upon request. Costs are negotiated individually.

**Contacts:**

Mary Santonastasso, Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention, U.S. Department of Justice, 633 Indiana Avenue, N.W., Washington, D.C. 20531, (202) 724-8493.

Joe Weis, Director, Center for Law and Justice, University of Washington, JD-45, Seattle, Washington 98195, (206) 543-1485.

Andrea Hunter, Youth Coordinator, Northwest Regional Educational Laboratory, 300 Southwest Sixth Avenue, Portland, Oregon 97204, (800) 547-6339 Ext. 459 (toll-free), or (503) 248-6800 Ext. 459.

Raul Tuset, Westinghouse National Issues Center, P.O. Box 866, American City Building, Columbia, Maryland 21044, (301) 992-0066.

Art Greenberg, Principal, Beach Channel High School, 100-00 Beach Channel Drive, Rockaway Park, New York 11694, (212) 945-6998.

# Student Involvement

*"Ms Burns, since there are now clear indications of my improved sense of self-direction, better decision making skills, and willingness to take appropriate risks—would it be possible to negotiate a longer recess?"*

# Alternative Pursuits Program

**Purpose:**

To find positive alternatives to meet needs that might otherwise be met by involvement in drug abuse and to improve individual self-concept and positive motivation.

**Rationale:**

Providing meaningful alternative pursuits to meet students' real needs can channel energy in positive directions.

**Target Audience:**

Students in junior high, middle school, and high school.

**Description:**

Alternative Pursuits is a youth-oriented program directed toward those who need meaningful free-time activity. Groups usually meet for a 12- to 14-week period in schools or community agencies either during school hours or after school. The group members decide on their activities, find their own resources, and make their own decisions. Both individual and group activities are encouraged to help participants gain a sense of community. This program differs from many others in that it is operated solely by youth.

Activities selected vary widely according to the needs of the group and the community. Groups have worked on counseling and career needs and have explored Eastern philosophy, flower arranging, and hang gliding. They have volunteered at homes for the elderly and painted murals to brighten older school buildings.

**Evidence of Effectiveness:**

A program evaluation, which was sponsored by the National Institute of Drug Abuse showed major improvements in students' self-concepts. Those working with the project report that students experienced an improved sense of self-direction, better decision-making skills, and a willingness to take appropriate risks. Where alternative pursuits were part of the school program, attendance also improved (see Contacts).

**Materials Needed:**

Varies according to the activities selected.

**Personnel and Training Required:**

A staff leader and, usually, peer facilitators are needed. The peer facilitators are program participants who stay on for additional training. The Hampton program often uses summer retreats for training both teachers and facilitators.

**Contacts:**

Cindy Fletcher, Alternatives, Inc., 1520 Aberdeen Road, Suite 102, Hampton, Virginia 23605, (804) 838-2330.

Pacific Institute for Research and Evaluation, 7101 Wisconsin Avenue, Suite 612, Bethesda, Maryland 20814, (301) 986-0301.

**References/Resources:**

*Alternatives to Drug Abuse: Steps Toward Prevention*. Available from the National Clearinghouse on Drug Abuse Information, 5600 Fishers Lane, Rockville, Maryland 20857.

Cohen, Allan. "Alternatives to Drugs: New Visions for Society." *The Community's Response to Drug Use*, ed. Stanley Einstein. New York: Preganon Press, 1980.

# Open Road Student Involvement Project

## A PROGRAM OF THE CITIZENS POLICY CENTER

**Purpose:**
To reduce student alienation and to improve school climate by offering training and experience applicable to real decision making for school policies and operations.

**Rationale:**
When students have an opportunity to participate in decision making, tensions, violence, and vandalism can be reduced.

**Target Audience:**
Secondary school students who are considered to be leaders and opinion-makers by their peers, but who have not been involved necessarily in school activities because they may have low grades or be "discipline problems."

**Description:**
A teacher/leader identifies natural student leaders, then brings them together in a group called the Concerned Student Organization (CSO). As many natural leaders from as many segments of the school as possible are encouraged to join the group. The Concerned Student Organization is recognized as an official campus organization with a constitution and bylaws prepared by the students. Those who want greater involvement can learn problem-solving, conflict resolution, and decision-making techniques in a Leadership Training Class that meets daily during a regular school period for academic credit.

Open Road students have been a part of weekly administrative meetings on school policy, have established rumor-control communication networks, conducted community outreach programs, and mobilized citizens to work with students in campaigns against violence. The program involves three levels of student involvement:

1. The Concerned Student Organization builds its credibility by recruiting a large number of students committed to creating a positive learning climate.
2. The Concerned Student Organization selects projects and plans and implements recommendations. The Organization may choose to review student rights and responsibilities or initiate peer tutoring. Resource support groups of school and community members and students provide assistance.
3. Students become involved in critical decision making affecting the school and educational services, such as curriculum development and grievance procedures.

An essential component of the Open Road project is the willingness of the principal and administration to allow students to implement their recommendations.

***"I don't know what a natural leader is. All I know is: wherever I go, I leave a trace . . . "***

Santa Barbara High School Student

**Evidence of Effectiveness:**

More than 4,000 concerned students have participated in 30 California schools. Principals at these schools have reported less tension, approximately 50 percent less conflict and vandalism, increased pride in the school, and improved school climate. Results are discussed in Wall, Drier and Wertham.

**Materials Needed:**

The major cost is release time (one period) for the teacher/sponsor to prepare, be involved, and monitor the program. An office and a phone for the teacher/sponsor are desirable.

**Personnel and Training Required:**

The school principal is the key figure to ensure that students will be allowed to play a significant role in the decision-making process and to encourage other administrative and faculty support.

The teacher/sponsor needs to organize the group; assist the group members in their activities; teach the Leadership Training Class; work with the Concerned Student Organization; and help facilitate communication with other students, faculty, and administration. Teachers usually organize the Resource Support Group.

**Contacts:**

Melinda Moore, Assistant Director, Citizens Policy Center, 1515 Webster Street, Room 401, Oakland, California 94609, (415) 839-9037.

**References/Resources:**


Drier, Peter, and Carl Wertham. *Curbing Violence and Vandalism in Schools: An Evaluation Study of Two Experimental Approaches*. California Council on Criminal Justice, 1978.

*Introduction to Student Involvement*. A slide tape presentation on student involvement. Oakland, California: Citizens Policy Center, 1980.

*Involved Children Make Better Schools: A Guide to Student Involvement in Intermediate Schools*. Oakland, California: Citizens Policy Center, 1983.

Wall, John S., et al. *Juvenile Delinquency Prevention: A Compendium of 36 Program Models*. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1981.

*What Works: A Manual for Student Involvement*. Oakland, California: Citizens Policy Center, Inc., 1979.

# Peer Culture Development (PCD) CHICAGO, ILLINOIS

# Positive Peer Culture (PPC)

## OMAHA, NEBRASKA

**Purpose:**
To provide young adults an opportunity to alter the negative influence of the school peer society and to encourage students to accept responsibility for their own actions.

**Rationale:**
Peers exert substantial influence on behavior and values; youngsters can defend against inappropriate peer pressure by learning appropriate interaction and decision-making skills.

**Target Audience:**
Students in junior and senior high schools.

**Description:**
Peer Culture Development and Positive Peer Culture are self-help programs based on the ability of youth to help one another. A small group of students identified as natural leaders meets daily as part of their regular school program to help one another solve problems. There is a PCD group leader/staff member, and a set of straightforward and clearly articulated principles to guide the group. Emphasis is placed on learning a problem-solving process and on improving interpersonal communication skills.

Group participants are recruited initially to include natural leaders. Although new members are referred for crisis intervention and conflict resolution, the core of the group remains fairly constant over the semester to allow for development of interaction. Leaders can be teachers or outside individuals trained in the PCD approach. In the Omaha Positive Peer Culture program, parents must give permission for a student to enter the program and parents are urged to attend an orientation meeting. This model also has student advisory groups to work with students who have behavior, attendance, or other problems.

**Evidence of Effectiveness:**
Peer Culture Development is used with over 2,000 students yearly in the Chicago schools. It also is being used in Detroit and Indianapolis. Reports for the Johns Hopkins School Effectiveness Evaluation Study on the Chicago project indicate that peer counseling intervention produced positive effects on belief in conventional rules, delinquent behavior, and school grades; although effects were not consistent over each semester and across categories of youth (Gottfredson). Instructional Research Reports #1975-10 and #1977-3 from the Omaha Public Schools document some of the early successes in that city. For the PPC group, attitudes

improved along with grades. There were fewer suspensions, and tardy and absence rates declined. PPC is assessed also in Wall, et al.

### Materials Needed:

Implementation Manual from Peer Culture Development, Inc., or training materials from Positive Peer Culture.

### Personnel and Training Required:

Teachers must be trained for Peer Culture Development or Positive Peer Culture. PCD trains school faculty members who will be trainers after PCD staff have departed, using a two-year course of theories implementation, group diagnostics, and training methods. PCD also trains group leaders in a two-semester process that involves working with a group under the direction of a trainer. The entire process is detailed in PCD's Implementation Manual. PPC professionals train volunteer teachers for eight to nine weeks in a one and one-half hour weekly training session. The trained teacher then organizes and supports the group.

***"Because institutions exist to serve students, clearly defined means must be provided for student participation in the formulation and implementation of institutional policies."***

NEA's Task Force on Student Involvement

### Contacts:

Kenneth Butts, Assistant Superintendent, and Dr. Don Benning, Project Coordinator, Department of Human/Community Relations, Omaha Public Schools, 3902 Davenport Street, Omaha, Nebraska 68131, (402) 554-1111.

Gary Gottfredson, Center for Social Organization of Schools, Johns Hopkins University, 3505 North Charles Street, Baltimore, Maryland 21218, (301) 338-7570.

Sonny Luster, Peer Culture Development, Inc., 222 West Adams, Room 1381, Chicago, Illinois 60606, (312) 230-4607.

Eugene Skinner, 5174 Levenworth Street, Omaha, Nebraska 48106.

### References/Resources:


"Positive Peer Culture: A System Based on TLC." *Everybody's Business, a Book About School Discipline*, eds. Joan McCarty and M. Hayes Mizell. Southeastern Public Education, 1980.

*School Effectiveness Study, Interim Summary of Alternative Education Evaluation*. Ed. Gary D. Gottfredson. Baltimore, Maryland: Johns Hopkins University, May 1983.

Vorrath, Harry, and Larry K. Brendtro. *Positive Peer Culture*. Chicago: Aldine Publishing Co., 1974.

Wall, John S., et al. *Juvenile Delinquency Prevention: A Compendium of 36 Program Models*. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1981.

# Peer Facilitation Program

**Purpose:**
To train students to become effective facilitators, listeners, group leaders, tutors, community volunteers, and role models for one another.

**Rationale:**
Peer facilitation programs operate from the premise that young people have a natural tendency to depend on, and turn to, each other for support and thus can have a great influence on each other. Positive peer influence is a powerful force when used systematically.

**Target Audience:**
Students in upper elementary, junior, and senior high school classes.

**Description:**
Students elect to take the Florida structured program as a regular semester or year course. They receive training in vital communication skills, interpersonal and group dynamics, and problem-solving skills. After a training period spanning six to nine weeks, students receive credit for working as peer tutors, counselors, teachers, or community workers. Four major components of an effective program are:

1. Establishing criteria for selecting students to be included in the program, such as desire or dependability.
2. Developing systematic training of 30 hours minimum with qualified personnel.
3. Providing continual supervision and accountability.
4. Evaluating field experience and other benefits.

In some states, such as Florida, peer facilitation classes may be credited fully in the same manner as any social studies, psychology, or English class. In other areas, the training may be extracurricular and for other time periods, the activities, however, are similar.

**Evidence of Effectiveness:**
Evaluation reports from Florida noted significant improvement in self-esteem and social and moral attitudes in adolescents 14 to 18 years of age (see Contacts). An Indianapolis, Indiana, study showed academic improvement, improvement in attendance, and a reduction in discipline referrals (see *Peer Facilitator Quarterly*, March 1983, p. 5). The June, 1982, *Peer Facilitator Quarterly* lists programs now in action in Arkansas, Florida, Michigan, Pennsylvania, New Jersey, California, Illinois, and Ontario.

**Materials Needed:**
*Youth Helping Youth: A Handbook for Training Peer Facilitators* by Robert D. Myrick and Tom Erney, 1978.

*Caring and Sharing: Becoming A Peer Facilitator*, a student handbook by R. Myrick and Tom Erney,

1981, available from Educational Media Corporation, P.O. Box 21311, Minneapolis, Minnesota 55421, (612) 636-5098.

***"At a meeting I was attending, one of my recent graduates came up to me and said, 'I just have to tell you this, that Peer was the most important course in my high school career. I use it every single day. I think it ought to be made a required course.' "***

Barbara Porcher,
Assistant Principal
Palm Beach County, Fla.

**Personnel and Training Required:**

A qualified instructor with skills in counseling and interpersonal communications should teach the course.

**Contacts:**

Dr. Thomas Erney, 2632 Northwest 43rd Street, Office 85, Gainesville, Florida 32606, (904) 378-2120.

Barbara Porcher, Assistant Principal, Spanish River High School, 5101 Jog Road, Boca Raton, Florida 33434, (305) 994-6100.

**References/Resources:**

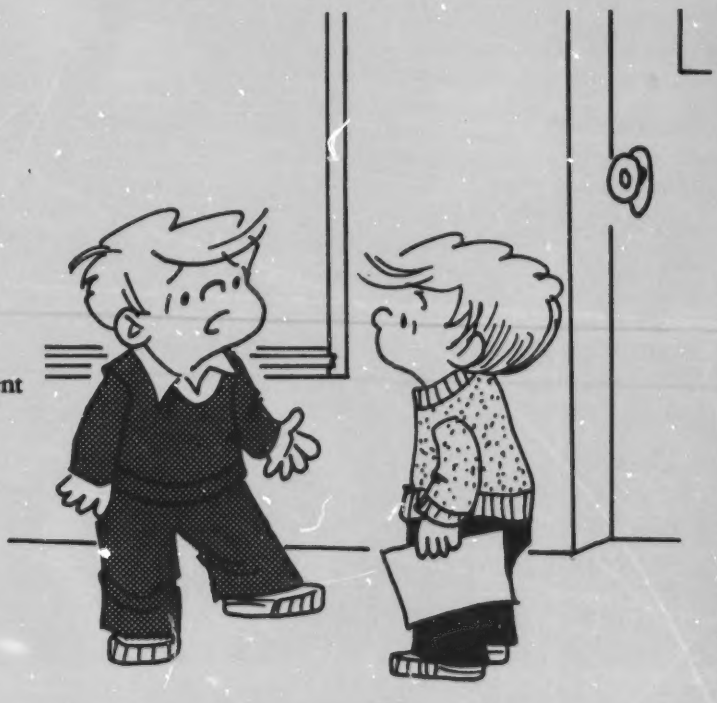
*Adolescent Peer Pressure Theory, Correlates, and Program Implications for Drug Abuse Prevention*. Rockville, Maryland: U.S. Department of Health and Human Services; reprinted 1983 DHHS Publication No. (ADM) 83-1152. Available from National Clearinghouse on Drug Abuse Information, 5600 Fishers Lane, Rockville, Maryland 20857.

*Becoming a Friendly Helper: A Handbook for Student Facilitators*. Minneapolis: Educational Media Corporation, 1981.

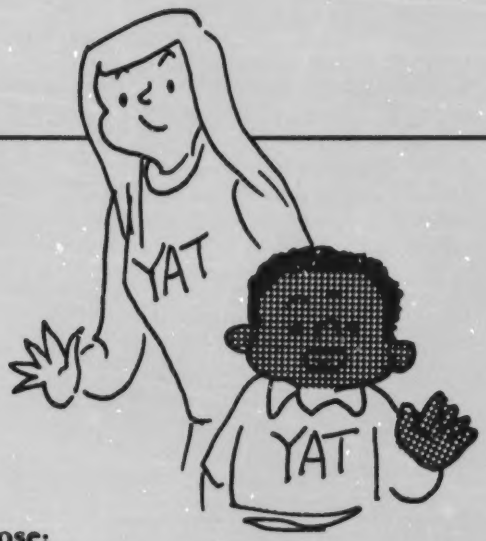
*Peer Facilitator Quarterly*. Ed. Robert P. Bowman, Ph.D., Counselor Education, University of South Carolina, Columbia, South Carolina 29208.

Myrick, Robert D., and Robert P. Bowman. *Children Helping Children: Teaching Students to Become Friendly Helpers*. Minneapolis: Educational Media Corporation, 1981.

Film: *Peer Facilitators: Youth Helping Youth* (1976). Educational Media Corporation, Box 21311, Minneapolis, Minnesota 55421. A 27-minute film that shows how a peer facilitator program works.



***"You see Artie, I love my parents, and I've got to love school . . . or else!"***




# Youth Action Teams

**Purpose:**
To provide an opportunity for a group of youth to share power and responsibility through studying a problem and deciding upon a suitable action.

**Rationale:**
Research and practice indicate that, when young people help plan their own education and activities, they feel better about themselves, behave in more acceptable ways, and are willing to help bring about positive changes in the school and community.

**Target Audience:**
A wide range of young people with a concern for others and a willingness to work.

**Description:**
Youth Action Teams are designed to merge educational experience with direct aid to communities. Each team involves 8 to 10 young people ages 12 to 21. Each team consists of members of different ages, races, and socio-economic backgrounds. Once formed, a team may operate anywhere at any time, in a school setting or in the community.

Each team chooses a specific, existing social problem or current need, such as reducing school crime and violence or developing new jobs for youth. With the help of the team organizer and learning coordinator, the team then prepares an action plan. Each team member develops a learning contract based on individual goals and objectives, the available resources, and the activities required to earn a class credit. Contracts can be renegotiated if necessary.

Members of the team meet regularly and receive academic credit for what they research and learn. In many of the projects, they also are paid on an hourly basis for actual work completed.

**Evidence of Effectiveness:**
Successful teams have been used by the Social Action Research Center in Marin County, California; by the St. Paul, Minnesota, Consumer Action Service; by the Berkeley, California, Youth Recycling Center; and by the East Lansing, Michigan, Youth Advocacy Group (see The YAT Manual).

**Materials Needed:**
Vary by project. All projects require the commitment of the school administration to recognize experience-based learning and a commitment on the part of the community to allow youth involvement.

**Personnel and Training Required:**
Each team needs a Team Organizer, an older youth experienced in planning and development and a Learning Coordinator, a teacher, counselor, or project director who helps develop the learning contract and has overall administrative responsibility.

**Contacts:**
Willie Stapp, 154 Cole Street #4, San Francisco, California 94117, (415) 386-2094.

Craig A. Sundlee, 964 Oak Street, San Francisco, California 94117, (415) 386-2094.

**References/Resources:**
Sundlee, Craig A., and Willie, Stapp. *The YAT Manual, Youth Action Teams*. San Rafael, California: Social Action Research Center, 1979. Available from SARC, 6849 Lucas Valley Road, Nicasio, California 94946.

STRATEGY

# School-Family Relationship

# Home-Based Reinforcement of School Behavior

**Purpose:**

To encourage a consistent, positive influence in both the home and school.

**Rationale:**

Both the home and school experiences affect the behavior of young people. Consistent expectations and sanctions in both environments should result in improved academic performance and behavior.

**Target Audience:**

Students in elementary and junior high schools and their families.

**Description:**

In Home-Based Reinforcement programs, parents furnish rewards for their child's successful school behavior. Parents and teachers plan together, agree on classroom objectives, and define desirable behavior. School-home note systems are used to inform parents about their child's daily performance. Parents then offer a variety of reinforcements of graduated worth for specific behaviors. Home-based reward systems rely on the parent's sense that school performance is important and on the teacher's capacity to focus on individual children.

This type of system is easy to initiate but difficult to maintain. Often supplementary support strategies are needed. These might include home visits, calls, or parents' support groups.

**Evidence of Effectiveness:**

Home-based rewards have been used to increase homework completion rates; to increase math, reading, and spelling scores; to reduce truancy; and to control disruptive behavior (see Ayllon et al., 1975; Fairchild, 1976).

**Materials Needed:**

A reward list and communication form must be developed.

**Personnel and Training Required:**

Teachers usually provide parents with minimal training in the use of rewards. Time for teacher-parent conferences also is required along with time for follow-up.

**Contacts:**

Dr. Joyce L. Epstein, School Organization Program, Johns Hopkins University Center for Social Organization of Schools, 3505 North Charles Street, Baltimore, Maryland 21218 (301) 338-7570.

Jean B. Schumaker, 310 COL, University of Kansas, Lawrence, Kansas 66045, (913) 864-2700.

Dr. Edward O. Brown, Center for Law and Justice, University of Washington D-45, Seattle, Washington 98195, (206) 543-1485.

***"Teachers who need parents' assistance or who choose to emphasize family school cooperation, are more likely to have worked out ways to involve parents from all educational levels."***

Henry Jay Becker and Joyce L. Epstein
Johns Hopkins University

**References/Resources:**

Alkeson, Beverley M., and Rex Forehand. "Home-Based Reinforcement Program Designed to Modify Classroom Behavior: A Review and Methodological Evaluation." *Psychological Bulletin*, Vol. 86, No. 6 (November 1979), pp. 1298-1308.

Ayllon, Teodoro, S. Garber, and K. Pisor. "The Elimination of Discipline Problems Through a Combined School-Home Motivational System." *Behavior Therapy*, Vol. 6, pp. 616-626.

Barth, Richard. "Home-Based Reinforcement of School Behavior: A Review and Analysis." *Review of Educational Research*, Vol. 49, No. 3 (Summer 1979), pp. 436-438.

Epstein, Dr. Joyce. *Summary of Research Reports on Teachers' Practices of Parent Involvement*. Baltimore, Maryland: Johns Hopkins University Center for Social Organization of Schools, 1982.

Fairchild, Thomas N. "Home-School Token Economies: Bridging the Communication Gap." *Psychology in the Schools*, Vol. 13, No. 4 (1976), pp. 463-467.

Fraser, Mark W., and J. David Hawkins. *Parent Training for Delinquency Prevention: A Review and Overview*. Washington, D.C.: National Institute for Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention, Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention, U.S. Department of Justice, 1982.

Wall, John S., et al. *Juvenile Delinquency Prevention: A Compendium of 36 Models*. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1980.

***"I approve of encouraging an informal classroom atmosphere, Ms Shumway. However . . ."***

**Purpose:**

To provide direct assistance and a support network for students and families and to improve home/school communication.

**Rationale:**

Schools need the support of the local community, and parents need to be well informed about what is going on in schools. When indicated, support services to students and their families can reduce alienation and improve both attendance and academic achievement.

# Home-School Coordinators

**Target Audience:**

Students and families in need of additional support or assistance.

**Description:**

The Home-School Coordinator is a school official who acts as a liaison between the school and families of students. Programs have taken many forms and can involve both staff and volunteers. They may offer intensive short-term therapy and assistance or long-term support services. In the Salem, Oregon, Child Development Specialist program, coordinators assess student development, offer counseling and referral, and sponsor training for both teachers and parents. Home-School Coordinators also have recruited parents for involvement in other programs.

In the Columbus, Ohio, Home-School program, coordinators work with families and students on desegregation-related problems, attendance and related school problems, and with the special needs of low-income students. In 1982, coordinators made more than 700 home visits. In the Baltimore Family Activities to Maintain Enrollment (FAME) program, four paraprofessional family specialists made home visits and checked attendance. Other project activities have included Parent Effectiveness Training, counseling, peer tutoring, and family outings.

**Evidence of Effectiveness:**

According to reports assembled by the National Institute of Education, school coordinators indicate positive improvement in student achievement and behavior as well as increased parent cooperation. More than 90 percent of the parents in the Columbus program reported coordinators were a positive influence in both the home and the school.

**Materials Needed:**

Depend on the activities involved.

**Personnel and Training Required:**

Coordinators need to be trained by school personnel. Coordination and training probably should be handled by a staff specialist, but both staff and volunteers have participated in programs.

**Contacts:**

Dr. Edward O. Brown, Center for Law and Justice, JD-45, University of Washington, Seattle, Washington 98195, (206) 543-1485.

Oliver Moles, Teaching and Instruction Division, National Institute of Education, 1200 19th Street, N.W., Washington, D.C. 20208, (202) 254-5407.

Dr. Maxine Smith, Director of Staff Development and Human Relations, Watergate Center, 3080 Wicklow Road, Columbus, Ohio 43204, (614) 276-6361.

**References/Resources:**

Collins, Carter H., Oliver Moles, and Mary Cross. *The Home-School Connection, Selected Partnership Programs* (1982) . Available from the Institute for Responsive Education, 605 Commonwealth Avenue, Boston, Massachusetts 02215.

# Parents as Volunteers, Tutors, and Classroom Assistants

**Purpose:**
To increase interaction between parents and schools, to encourage consistent expectations that will aid understanding, and to improve mutual support in both settings.

**Rationale:**
To increase the effectiveness of their work, schools need the support of parents and the community. Parents and other community members need to be well informed about what goes on in the schools in order to provide the necessary positive, public support.

**Target Audience:**
All schools, parents, and other community members.

**Description:**
Parents and other interested adults are invited into the classroom as volunteers to assist teachers and to provide more time to meet individual needs of students. The parents' work may vary, but is intended to provide assistance wherever it is needed most. A parent may give supplemental instruction, assist in grading papers, monitor playground activities, help in the cafeteria, or tutor in a special subject such as art or careers exploration. Volunteers also may offer clerical assistance or furnish transportation.

Some programs offer late day training sessions or economic incentives to stimulate participation of working class and minority parents. In many areas, retired individuals whose children are no longer in schools are being recruited successfully. Their assistance is essential because the increase in the number of working mothers has depleted the traditionally available volunteers. Retired individuals also offer children an opportunity to interact directly with senior citizens.

**Evidence of Effectiveness:**
Programs of this type are common. School principals report participation is greatest in middle class districts where there is a high proportion of two-parent families with only one parent working. Many school districts report they actively are encouraging new approaches to attract a wider representation in the volunteer group.

**Materials Needed:**
Depend on activities.

**Personnel and Training Required:**
In-service training varies depending on specific tasks. Training in basic tutorial skills can be accomplished in a few short sessions. Training also should be provided for staff to enable effective use of volunteer services.

**Contacts:**
Dr. Joyce L. Epstein, School Organization Program, Johns Hopkins University Center for Social

Organization of Schools, 3505 North Charles Street, Baltimore, Maryland 21218 (301) 338-7570.

Dr. Douglas M. Kerr, Center for Law and Justice, JD-45, University of Washington, Seattle, Washington 98195, (206) 543-1485.

Vanda Williamson, Director, Volunteers Upholding Education, 7115 Clarke Road, West Palm Beach, Florida 33407, (305) 684-5111.

**References/Resources:**


Burns, Gerald. *The Study of Parental Involvement in Four Federal Education Programs, Executive Summary*. Washington, D.C.: The U.S. Department of Education, Office of Planning, Budget and Evaluation, November 1982.

Epstein, Dr. Joyce. *Summary of Research Reports on Teachers' Practices of Parents' Involvement*. Baltimore, Maryland: Johns Hopkins University Center for Social Organization of Schools, 1982.

*Utilizing Volunteers in Your Classroom: A Handbook for Teachers*. Tallahassee, Florida: State Department of Education, 1980.

*Volunteers Upholding Education*. Orientation Manual for Palm Beach County School Volunteer Program.

Wall, John S., et al. *Juvenile Delinquency Prevention: A Compendium of 36 Models*. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1981. (Available from the Child Development Specialist Program, Salem, Oregon.)

*"I sometimes wonder about Wilson's immediate feedback to students!"*

# Relationship Enhancement Skill Training; Filial Enhancement Skill Training

**Purpose:**

To encourage better communication and to develop conflict/problem-resolution skills within families.

**Rationale:**

Parents can influence attitudes and behaviors of their children and help them to become more goal-directed.

**Target Audience:**

Relationship Enhancement Skill Training focuses on secondary school students (ages 11 to 18) and their families. The training for elementary students and their families can be provided through the Filial Enhancement Training program.

**Description:**

Relationship Enhancement Training is directed toward skill training in nine areas grouped in communication, problem-solving, and maintenance skills training. Groups may include one to four or five families. The training can be a one weekend session or weekly sessions of two and one-half hours for 12 to 15 weeks. Numbers in the group and the training schedule are flexible to meet the local need.

Sessions focus on improving and strengthening family relationships, helping set goals, and establishing norms. The program also teaches maintenance skills in order that improvements can be retained over time. Variations of the program may be used for teacher-student sessions and for younger children (the Filial Program).

**Evidence of Effectiveness:**

In a recent Guerney study of mothers and daughters, ages 11 to 18, Relationship Enhancement Training proved superior to no treatment and to traditional group therapy in developing general communication skills, empathetic understanding, and the general quality of the relationship. After six months, participants continued to show gains on all measures. Classroom behavior, attendance, and school attitudes improved in a program where students and teachers were trained.

**Materials Needed:**

*Relationship Enhancement: Skill Training Programs for Therapy, Problem Prevention and Enrichment*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, 1977.

Manuals for trainers and parents are available for the Filial Program from IDEALS (see Contacts).

Manual for students in Relationship Enhancement is available from IDEALS.

Videotapes and films also are available.

**Personnel and Training Required:**

A trained group leader is essential. Training is available through IDEALS and from IDEALS trainers located at colleges and universities across the country.

**Contacts:**

Bernard Guerney, Jr., Ph.D., Professor of Human Development, Catherine Beacher House, Pennsylvania State University, University Park, Pennsylvania 16802, (804) 865-1751.

IDEALS (Training through Institute for Development for Emotional and Life Skills), P.O. Box 391, State College, Pennsylvania 16804.

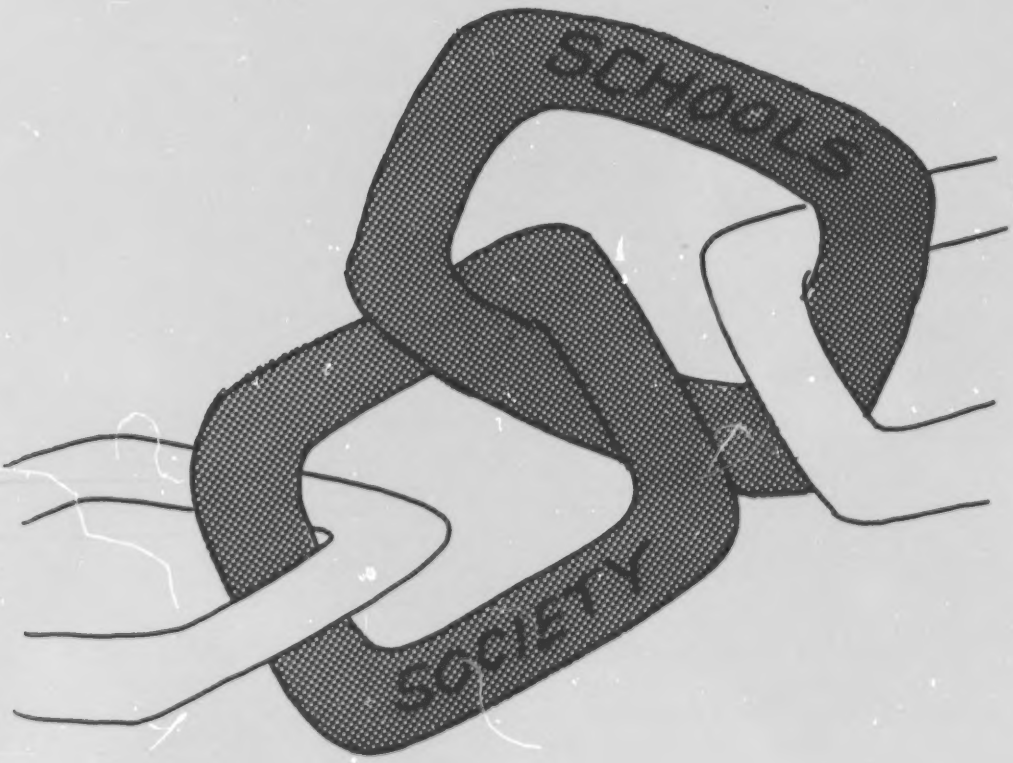
**References/Resources:**

Guerney, Bernard G., Jr., J. Coufal, and E. Vogelsong. "Relationship Enhancement Versus a Traditional Approach to Therapeutic/Preventative/Enrichment Parent-Adolescent Programs." *Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology*, Vol. 49 (1981), pp. 927-939.

Guerney, Bernard G., Jr., J. Coufal, and E. Vogelsong. "Relationship Enhancement Versus a Traditional Treatment; Follow-up and Booster Effects." Chapter in *Family Studies Review Yearbook*, ed. D. Olson, New York: Sage Publications, 1983.

STRATEGY

# School-Community Relationship



## School-Community

**Anti-Vandalism Projects**
Cooperative Vocational Education
Officer Friendly Program
School-Business Partnerships
School-Community Advisory Councils
School Site Management
Times Square Truancy Outreach Project
Young Volunteers in Action
Youth Awareness Program

# Anti-Vandalism Projects

**Purpose:**

To reduce vandalism by increasing individual and school pride and creating an awareness of the cost of vandalism.

**Rationale:**

Increasing students' self-pride as well as pride in their school has positive effects on school climate and reduces the incentive for vandalism. Including students, school staff, and community people in the planning and implementation of projects helps to guarantee a high level of interest and support.

**Target Audience:**

All students in the school and community members. This type of program can be adapted for elementary, middle, or senior high schools.

**Description:**

Although Anti-Vandalism Projects have a common goal, they may be organized and operated in many different ways according to school and community needs. They often begin in response to community concern about property damage or because school officials want to improve the appearance of school buildings. Successful projects usually involve both school and the community.

Usually an action committee, established by the superintendent or principal, plans and directs activities. The committee includes students, teachers, and administrators and may also invite representatives from the P.T.A., local business, and law enforcement agencies. A school staff person often serves as coordinator and assists in publicity efforts.

Activities vary, but the primary focus is usually on improving both individual and school pride. The committee may sponsor slogan or essay contests (format varies according to grade), mural painting projects, and school clean-up days. The committee plans assemblies, and produces video or slide presentations, public information materials, plays, or puppet shows. The North East Independent School District in San Antonio, Texas, instituted an all-encompassing Superintendent's Sportmanship Trophy for the school with the highest ratings in designated areas of improvement.

Businesses often participate by donating prizes for contests or lending equipment and expertise for individual projects. In Colorado Springs, Colorado, the Board of Realtors increased the incentive to join in its anti-vandalism contest by establishing a fund for each school. Expenses resulting from vandalism were paid out of the fund, but the balance at the end of the year belonged to the school to be used for whatever it wanted. In many locations, law enforcement and security personnel cooperate in establishing a neighborhood watch or a "hot line" for reporting suspicious activities around schools.

According to the San Antonio project reports, the most important aspect of the specific programs is that they were initiated and promoted by students

***"We are more interested in negotiating simple changes in the school's tardiness rules than in training all teachers in better doorway tactics. We are more interested in radical solutions to the problem of students racing for the exits after school (e.g., changing the bus schedule) than in coaxing other teachers to patrol the hallways. We are more interested in controlling the use of the P.A. system than in training teachers to be better classroom managers of the disruptions it causes."***

Alfred S. Alschuler, Ph.D
University of Massachusetts

on the committee. Most projects also emphasize that expenditures for this type of program are minimal.

### Evidence of Effectiveness:

In Colorado Springs, the program resulted in a 33 percent reduction in district vandalism, along with increased awareness of the needless cost of vandalism. In San Antonio, the costs of vandalism decreased 16.2 percent, 21.4 percent, and 35.0 percent in the three years following the "base" year (an average of three prior years).

***"One of the most effective and cost-efficient ways to reduce exterior school vandalism and break-ins is often overlooked—community involvement."***

Safer Schools, Goals and Strategies,
Procedure Manual of Olympia, Washington
July 1983

### Materials Needed:

Seed money may be needed for film, tapes, and public relations materials.

### Personnel and Training Required:

A staff person usually as a coordinator and program promoter.

### Contacts:

Charles Gaul, Principal, Doherty Hills School, 4515 Baines Road, Colorado Springs, Colorado 80917, (303) 635-6200.

Sara Harris, Public Information Officer, North East Independent School District, 10333 Broadway, San Antonio, Texas 78217.

### References/Resources:

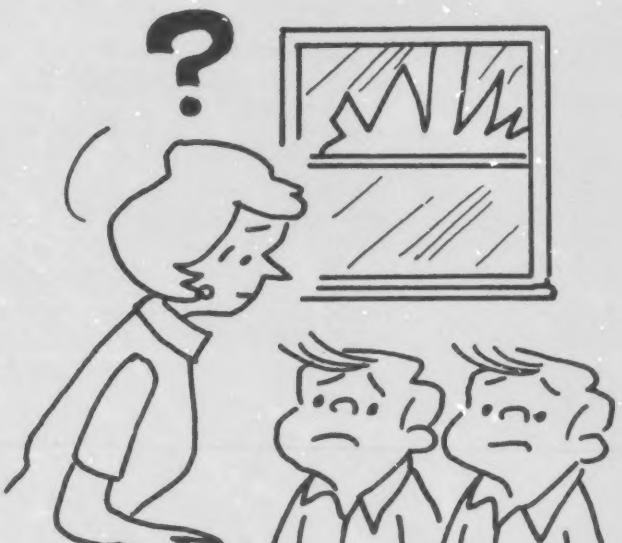

Casserly, Michael D. *School Vandalism: A Review of Programs*. Prepared for the Council of the Great City Schools under LEAA Grant No. 76 N1990139, 1977. Available from Council of the Great City Schools, 1707 H Street, N.W., 5th Floor, Washington, D.C. 20006.

National Institute of Education. *School Crime and Disruption: Prevention Models*. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1978.

Mullins, Gerald. *Preventing School Violence and Vandalism*. California School Boards Association, 916 23rd Street, Sacramento, California, 1978.

Vestermark, Seymour D., Jr., and Peter D. Blauvelt. *Controlling Crime in the Schools: A Complete Security Handbook for Administrators*. West Nyack, New York: Parker Publishing Company, Inc., 1978.

An anti-vandalism film is available from the Long Island Board of Realtors. Contact Bea Rizzo, LIBR, 535 Broad Hollow Road, Melville, New York 11747, (516) 694-3900.

# Cooperative Vocational Education (CVE)

**Purpose:**

To provide training in those vocational areas not currently being offered at a vocational, technical, or comprehensive high school; to serve students who are unable to gain admission to a vocational program due to excessive applicants; to serve students who may drop out of school because of financial, domestic, or scholastic problems; and to provide training for students who need an alternative form of education that meets their unique needs.

**Rationale:**

The employment experience assists students in establishing and achieving goals appropriate to their future employment needs, participating in activities that are directly relevant to their livelihood, developing job-related behavioral skills prior to school graduation, and becoming involved and committed in their own future work success.

**Target Audience:**

High school students with a vocational career objective that cannot be met by any existing in-school vocational programs.

**Description:**

Cooperative Vocational Education (CVE) is a program in which high school students work at a career occupation during part of their school day. It is designed to integrate theoretical classroom and shop study with planned and supervised practical experience in selected employment assignments. Although CVE is used widely, program requirements and vocational opportunities vary by local community. One successful model is the Cooperative Diversified Occupations (CDO) approach used by the Pennsylvania Department of Education which "bridges the gap" between school and career. In this program, students with specific career objectives are matched with related employment experience while they attend planned periods of related classroom theory at school. No technical instruction is provided by the school.

Because successful cooperative CDO programs involve the employing community, they require careful planning and coordination. The most successful programs have given special attention to the following items:

- Appointing a cooperative education instructor who is properly certified.
- Conducting student and community interest surveys to determine need and acceptance of the CDO program. It is helpful if the instructor conducts the surveys, because the personal contacts are helpful later in obtaining job placements for students.
- Establishing an advisory committee that can improve the effectiveness of the CDO program in operation.
- Determining the cost and method of financing the program.

Where cooperative, diversified vocational education is provided, it is planned in accordance with the student's stated career or occupational objectives and includes the following:

- Related learning experiences at a school approved work station.
- In-school general and specific vocational education instruction.
- A memorandum of understanding which involves the pupil, parent, school official, and cooperating employer or the employer's representative.
- Payment of a legal wage, except when the student is self-employed or observing.
- Provision for administration and supervision by school staff members in cooperation with the employer.
- Time for coordination of on-the-job activities, nearly one-half hour per week.
- Credit for cooperative work experience.
- A certified cooperative voc-ed instructor coordinating the program.

***"Vocational education has merit when solid grounding in language and math is a prelude to hands-on-training. Most employees want literate, reliable workers, who come to work ready to profit from rapid on-the-job-training."***

Gilber T. Sewall
Fortune, September 19, 1983

### Evidence of Effectiveness:

Pennsylvania school administrators report that CDO helps to minimize the drop-out rate by helping students solve their financial problems which often contribute to their educational problems. Both students and industry benefit through salaried work experience. Students develop "solid" work habits and realistic skills. Large and small firms seek CDO students because they exhibit positive work attitudes (see Contacts).

### Materials Needed:

State curriculum resource guides for vocational education are available from the Pennsylvania State Department of Education, Bureau of Vocational Education (see Contacts).

### Personnel and Training Required:

A certified cooperative education instructor is assigned as coordinator for the program.

### Contacts:

E.H. Blyler, State Supervisor, Marketing and Distribution, Education, Vocational, Cooperative Education, Bureau of Vocational Education, Sixth Floor, 333 Market Street, P.O. Box 911, Harrisburg, Pennsylvania 17108, (717) 783-6965.

### References/Resources:

The following resources are available from VEIN (Vocational Education Information Network), Millersville State College, Stayer Research and Learning Center, Millersville, Pennsylvania 17551.

*Cooperative Diversified Occupations: An Occupational Information Resource Guide for Vocational Education*, 1975.

*Occupational Information Resources for Vocational Programs with Emphasis for CDO*, 1977.

# Officer Friendly Program

**Purpose:**

To improve understanding and rapport between children and police; to provide positive experiences with police and their work; and to provide children with the opportunity to learn about their rights, responsibilities, and obligations as community members.

**Rationale:**

Respect for and communication with police as individuals will foster acceptance and improve knowledge of the law.

**Target Audience:**

Students in grades K through 3.

**Description:**

The Officer Friendly program is a joint venture of the police or sheriff's department and the school. Officer Friendly, a uniformed police officer who has had special training for this program, talks with classes and furnishes materials (puzzles and games) designed to "humanize" officers, to teach civic responsibility, and to work toward reduction of crime. The classroom teacher uses the materials to continue the program between officer visits.

**Evidence of Effectiveness:**

Successful programs have operated for many years and currently are in place in more than 250 large and small communities across the United States. The national office (see Contacts) reports that schools note improved student, teacher, and community attitudes; better rapport between police and the community; and reduced vandalism. The "stranger-danger" component has reduced abductors in several communities.

**Materials Needed:**

*The National Officer Friendly Program Guide* and the 80 reproducible originals of classroom materials.

The individual *Teacher Guides* (one for each grade).

*The Officer Friendly Classroom Kit*, provided after the program has started, for use in the classroom between officer visits.

**Personnel and Training Required:**

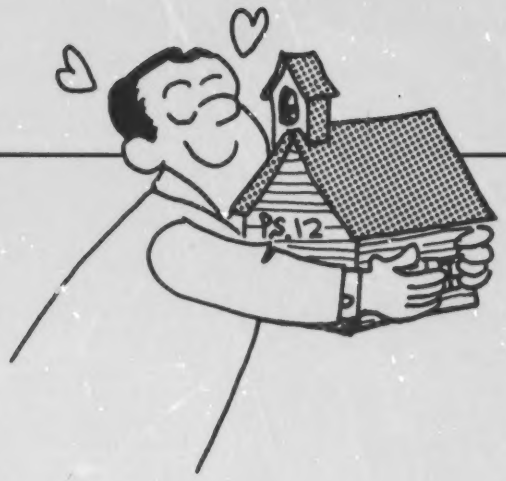
Approximately three days training plus release time usually is necessary for the officer. The school provides a coordinator and time for the presentation.

**Contacts:**

Richard Hastung, Program Director, The Sears Roebuck Foundation, Office Friendly Program, Sears Tower, D903 37-20 Chicago, Illinois 60684, (312) 875-8316.

Regional Offices of the Sears Roebuck foundation are:

Eastern: 555 East Lancaster Avenue Street, Davids, Pennsylvania 19087, (215) 293-2104.
Midwestern: 7447 Skokie Boulevard, Skokie, Illinois 60077, (312) 967-3223.
Pacific: 2212 148th Avenue, N.E., Redmond, Washington 98052, (206) 643-3215.
Southern: 675 Ponce de Leon Avenue, N.E., Annex 95, Atlanta, Georgia 30395, (404) 885-3707.
Southwestern: 1000 Belleview, Dallas, Texas 75295, (214) 565-4691.




# School-Business Partnerships

**Purpose:**
To broaden support for local public schools and to bring new resources to schools, especially technical and managerial expertise, volunteers, equipment, and access for teachers and students to business and industry.

**Rationale:**
Business and industry depend upon the quality of the education system for the future labor pool and the economic and social stability of the local community. Business involvement in local schools enhances corporate image in the community, enables business people to help upgrade the quality of school curricula and technology, and, in some areas, has provided support for higher taxes for better schools.

**Target Audience:**
Companies and agencies.

**Description:**
Effective School-Business Partnerships are designed to match resources and needs in *both* the school and the company. In large citywide programs, a full time program director usually mediates and monitors the pairings, with specific activities developed by a committee of company and school representatives. The school and the company also assign part time coordinators to manage the partnership. The extent and duration of commitment varies, but the most durable include a written contract defining mutual responsibilities, regular evaluation, and reviews at all levels of the company and school before contracts are renewed.

The typical pre-employment training programs emphasize essential skills for basic academic competency and for employability: punctuality and appropriate dress and behavior. Pre-employment also includes exposure to career paths and specific requirements and expectations that local companies have for emerging jobs.

Effective programs encourage regular and frequent contact between the business and students. The use of "mentors"—employees who volunteer to develop close and supportive relationships with individual students—significantly extends school guidance efforts because of the credibility that employees in the "real world" have among many students. Employees also acquaint teachers with current developments in many relevant fields, often providing first hand experiences in companies through summer internships, seminars, and association with technology experts in computer science and graphic arts.

The critical factor in forming partnerships—the most common stumbling block—is in identifying mutual needs through a reliable planning process. The National School Volunteer Program has developed a training component that enables corporate program directors to follow a tested and reliable process in creating and managing a program using company volunteers in the schools.

**Evidence of Effectiveness:**
The body of evidence of effectiveness in this field is diverse and fairly extensive, although somewhat uneven. The evaluation of the Chicago Adopt-A-School program, conducted by Chicago United, is

among the most current. Studies of the Philadelphia Career Academies offer especially useful insights into exemplary school-based programs aimed at youth at risk (see Contacts).

**Materials Needed:**

Depend upon program chosen.

**Personnel and Training Required:**

A coordinator for each school and each business.

**Contacts:**

Barbara Russell, Director, Adopt-A-School, and Rose Bauer, Assistant Director, Memphis City Schools, 2597 Avery Avenue, Memphis, Tennessee 38112, (901) 454-5364.

Terry Chauche, Coordinator, Business School Partnerships (ZIPS), Houston Independent School District, 3030 Richmond Avenue, Houston, Texas 77027, (713) 623-5011.

Al Sterling, Director, Adopt-A-School Program, Chicago Board of Education, 1819 West Pershing Road, 6-C, Chicago, Illinois 60609, (312) 890-8346.

Daniel Merenda, National School Volunteer Program, 701 North Fairfax Street, Suite 320, Alexandria, Virginia 22314, (703) 836-4880.

Henrik Koning, Philadelphia High School Academy Association, Inc., 2301 Market Street, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania 19101, (215) 841-5568.

**References:**


*American Education XVIII*. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Department of Education, July 1982, pp. 23-28.

"The ABC's of Adopt-A-School." A description and guide for one of the most successful programs, available from the Memphis Public Schools (see Contacts).

Barton, Paul E. *Employer-Education Partnerships: Who Does What, How They Do It, and What It Means*. A 1983 review of the literature available from the National Commission for Employment Policy, 1522 K Street, N.W., Suite 300, Washington, D.C. 20005.

"The Business Community and the Public Schools: A Dynamic Partnership." A free guide to the history of partnerships in Dallas, available from the Dallas Independent Schools, Community Relations, 3700 Ross Avenue, Dallas, Texas 75204, (214) 824-1620.

Lacey, Richard A. *Becoming Partners: How Schools and Companies Meet Mutual Needs*. Available from the National Commission for Employment Policy, 1522 K Street, N.W., Washington, D.C. 20006.

Merenda, Daniel W. (National School Volunteer Program), and Margaret Hunt (Utah Power and Light Company). *Creating & Managing A Corporate School Volunteer Program: A Manual for Program Directors*. Available from The National School Volunteer Program, Alexandria, Virginia 22314, (703) 836-4880.

*The Private Sector Youth Connection: School to Work*. Schilit, Henrietta, and Richard Lacey. Available from Vocational Youth Foundation, 44 East 23rd Street, New York, New York 10010.

# School-Community Advisory Councils

**Purpose:**
To involve a large number of citizens in democratic decision making regarding their local schools and to improve school and community relationships.

**Rationale:**
The success of public schools depends to a large extent on the understanding and support of the community. Citizens must be involved in planning to meet local needs and in setting the policies that will determine just how schools will operate.

**Target Audience:**
School leaders and community members.

**Description:**
School Advisory Councils or committees can serve several functions and be structured in a variety of ways. One type of advisory group is a standing committee that provides a discussion forum and a source of constant feedback for the administrator and staff. Students and community members may have separate groups or a single committee, but the committee members are selected to voice the views of the population they represent. The second type of advisory group is a study committee, usually established to deal with a specific problem. The study committee has broad representation to capture the views and assistance of the entire community.

Each school usually has its own advisory councils, but it is possible for the same council to serve as a continuing and problem-resolution group for the entire school system. Some councils have appointed members, some elected, and some a combination.

Advisory councils have been in use for many years, and some federal programs, some states, and many cities now require them as a way to increase community participation in the schools. Because effective councils need top level support and assistance, the most successful ones are sanctioned by the board of education and have the support of the school leadership. They establish their own bylaws and schedules for recommendations and reports, but work closely with school officials. Numbers vary, but larger groups usually are divided into subcommittees for different topics.

Advisory councils usually include a cross-section of people with a variety of opinions. Traditionally, low-income and minority individuals have been hesitant to participate, but their participation is being actively encouraged. Common topics considered are school building needs, school budgets, reporting systems, and administrative needs.

**Evidence of Effectiveness:**
Councils in several cities report improvement in the quality and climate of education. Studies by the Institute for Responsive Education show the attitudes and behaviors of school administrators are crucial for effectiveness (Brinkley). A growing number of councils are sharing in budget, personnel, and program decisions (O'Conner). Schools and councils also are struggling to find productive ways for advisory committees to participate in sensitive education and management decisions (Davis, Hall).

**Materials Needed:**
A locally prepared participant's manual.

**Personnel and Training Required:**

Varies depending on the structure and function of the advisory council. Administrators need to allocate time to participate.

**Contacts:**

Cities using advisory councils or committees include: Boston; Chicago; Detroit; Los Angeles; Newark, Ohio; New York City; Philadelphia; Rochester, N.Y.; Salt Lake City; Seattle. (Check your local school district.)

**References/Resources:**


Brinkley, Jacquelynn. "Making Parent Councils Effective." *Citizens Action in Education*. Institute for Responsive Education, Vol. 7, No. 1 (April 1980).

Davis, Don. "School Administrators and Advisory Councils: Partnership or Shotgun Marriage?" *NASSP Bulletin*, January 1980, pp. 63-65.

Hall, Burnis, Jr., and Eleanor Barnwell. "Working with Community Advisory Councils: Key to Success in Urban Schools." *Phi Delta Kappan*, March 1982.

*Community Council Governance: A Case Study of Detroit Public Schools*. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Office of Education, 1979.

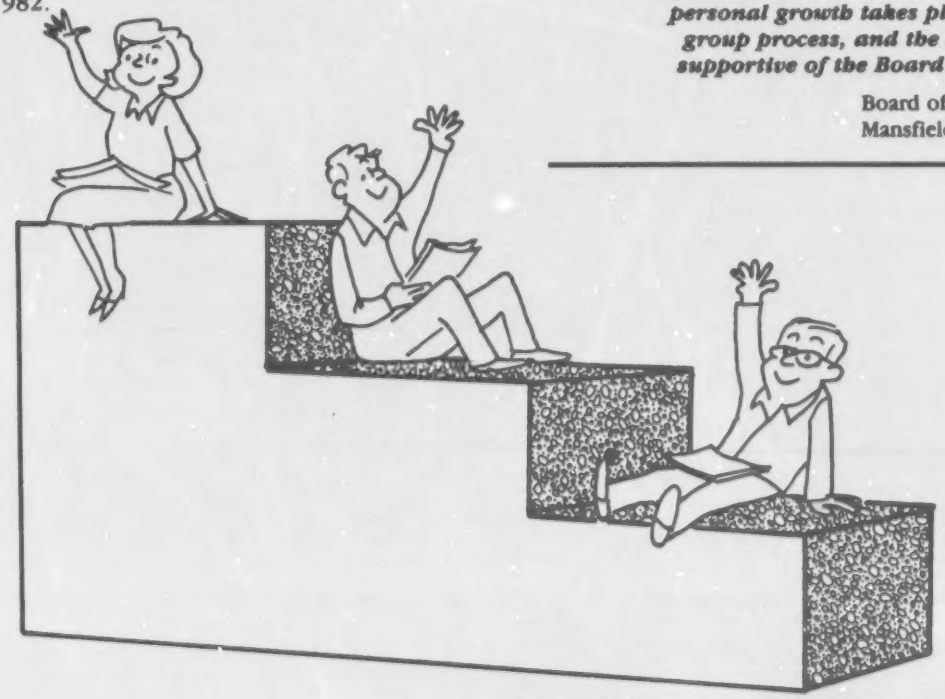
Mayher, Laurence T. "Concept of Citizens' Councils Explored." *Ohio School Boards Association Journal*, October 1976.

O'Conner, James R., and James E. Hoover. "Home/School Advisory Committees—Catalysts for Dialogue?" *Ohio School Boards Association Journal*, November 1981.

*Organizing An Effective Parent Advisory Council*. Washington, D.C.: National Parent Center, National Coalition of ESEA Title 1 Parents (1980), 71 pp., ERIC Document ED 195 604.


***"Despite any risks involved, we have found that advisory committees have served our district well. Through committee study and hard work, we gain a more informed public, a support system (members buy into our programs and share in the decision-making responsibilities of their school system), much personal growth takes place through the group process, and the media is more supportive of the Board of Education."***

Board of Education Member
Mansfield, Ohio



# School Site Management

**Purpose:**
To encourage the involvement of the local community in the decision making of individual schools.

**Rationale:**
Fiscal problems of schools are forcing development of new procedures for local program decision making. In addition, the governance pendulum is swinging back toward greater local control in place of federal and state control.

**Target Audience:**
Parents and community members working with school leaders and staff.

**Description:**
The central ingredient in this model is a shift in decision making responsibility from the district to the individual school. The school establishes an administrative advisory council made up of teachers, parents, and other community members. Councils identify important issues, establish goals, and make decisions about budget, personnel, curriculum and instruction, and community involvement. The councils provide a discussion forum where school and community work together to establish school priorities. This strategy requires the collaborative support of school and community, and also may require changes in state law or operating procedures. The school administrator is accountable to higher levels of authority and to the advisory group.

School Site Management allows for open communication between teachers, administrators, and the community. Teachers feel more accountable for and involved in programs they have helped plan and over which they have control. Citizen participation helps to increase satisfaction with the schools and to meet the present demand for increased representation. California, Florida, and South Carolina have mandated some form of school-based management.

**Evidence of Effectiveness:**
According to reports of the Salt Lake City School District, School Site Management has resulted in significant improvement in achievement test scores, in student attendance levels, in employee absentee rates, and in public confidence in schools. The National Committee for Citizens in Education (see Contacts) reports similar favorable results in schools in Florida, California, New Jersey, and South Carolina.

**Materials Needed:**
Depend on the specific programs selected.

**Personnel and Training Required:**
School personnel must be allowed time for necessary planning and actual management. Special training may be necessary.

# Times Square Truancy Outreach Project

**Purpose:**

To improve student attendance and to reduce juvenile crime in New York's Times Square area during school hours.

**Rationale:**

Students need to be in school to learn. Cooperative efforts by the school and community can reduce truancy by offering coordinated support services.

**Target Audience:**

Truant students.

**Description:**

In this joint project of the New York City Board of Education, Division of Pupil Personnel Services; the City Police; and the Transit Police, established a project center to work with out-of-school youth found in the Times Square area. The center was staffed by attendance teachers, guidance counselors, and health aides. Youth were brought to the center by special units of the city and transit police.

Once students arrived, staff at the center called each student's school, arranged for next-day guidance sessions, and called parents to pick up their children. If parents were unavailable, students were retained at the center for the school day. While students were at the center, health aides did hearing and vision screenings. In many cases, family and health problems were noted and referrals were made, where appropriate. The health area will be expanded in future years because of the numerous, previously unidentified health problems.

**Evidence of Effectiveness:**

According to the New York City Report (see References/Resources), more than half of the 6,000 students brought to the center returned to school the next day, many accompanied by parents. Contact with the students resulted in necessary school program changes and referrals to alternative programs, and to social service and health agencies. Without this contact, the changes and referrals would not have been made.

**Personnel and Training Required:**

Those assigned to the center were attendance, guidance, and health staff who had many years of experience working with difficult children. Many of the school safety officers selected also had been trained as peace making interveners. College interns helped maintain records.

**Contacts:**

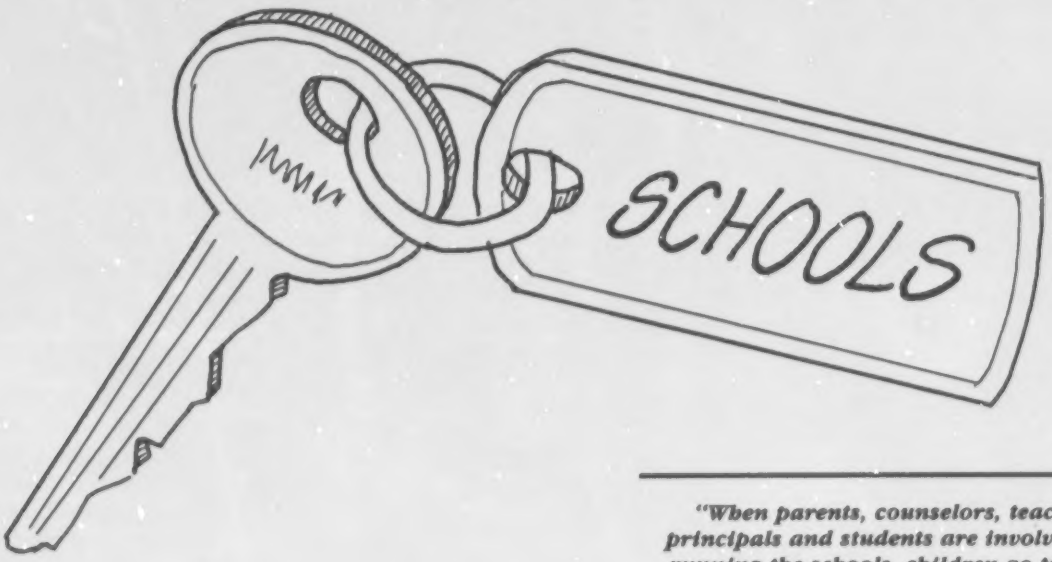
Joyce Ebner, New York City Board of Education, 362 Schermerhorn Street, Brooklyn, New York 11217, (212) 596-4840.

**References/Resource:**

A short report is available from the New York City Board of Education.

***Of over 6000 students brought to the center, over one-half returned to school the next day, many accompanied by their parents.***

New York City, Board of Education




***"When parents, counselors, teachers, principals and students are involved with running the schools, children go to better schools and children do better in school."***

Carl Marburger,
National Committee for
Citizens in Education

**Contacts:**

Carl Marburger, National Committee for Citizens in Education, Suite 410, Wilde Lake Village Green, Columbia, Maryland 21044, (301) 997-9300 or 1-800 NETWORK.

Dr. Stanley Morgan, Administrator for Education Accountability, Salt Lake City School District, 440 East, 100 South Street, Salt Lake City, Utah 84111, (801) 328-7347.

Kerry Highsmith, Director, Team Leader for Business Management Complex, Office of the Superintendent, P.O. Drawer 1430, Key West, Florida 33040, (305) 296-6523.

**References/Resources:**

Clark, Terry A. *Introducing School Site Management: A Framework for Citizen Involvement. A Handbook for Parents*. Trenton, New Jersey: School Watch, Inc., September 1979, 66 pages. ERIC Document 217 538.

Lindelow, John. *School-Based Management*. Eugene, Oregon: 1981, 25 pages. ERIC Document 209 740.

Parker, Barbara. "School-Based Management: Improve Education by Giving Parents, Principals More Control of Your Schools." *American School Board Journal*, Vol. 166, No. 7 (July 1979), pp. 20-21, 24.

*The Best of ERIC on Educational Management, Number 53*. Eugene, Oregon: Oct. 1980, 5 pages. ERIC Document 198 618.

# Young Volunteers in Action

middle schools on anti-shoplifting and anti-vandalism, and teaching handicapped persons about the legislative process.

Students are encouraged to develop work skills as they participate on a regular basis at their chosen work site. Continuing recognition is part of the program. School and community agencies work together to provide volunteer oportunities.

***"The most exciting thing about this program is that we have seen kids really turn around. Parents tell us kids have a really good self-image."***

Linda Riekas,
Project Director

**Purpose:**

To assist students in reinforcing law-related concepts and in participating responsibly in the community and to serve the community, especially law-related agencies and institutions.

**Rationale:**

Students who actively participate in the community develop a stake in their society. Knowing their responsibility under the law enables them to participate more effectively.

**Target Audience:**

High school students who participate in law-related education.

**Description:**

Young Volunteers in Action is a school-based program backed by the St. Louis community and the Phi Alpha Delta Law Fraternity. Through the program, students in law-related education are encouraged to participate in volunteer activities in the community to reinforce their legal concepts, to provide work experience, and to aid the community. Activities have included preparing brochures for the police department and the FBI, designing posters for the jury waiting room, making decorations for the police station, serving as jurors for the law school moot court, teaching classes in

**Evidence of Effectiveness:**

Close to 500 students have offered 10,000 hours of volunteer work. According to program teachers and administrators, tardiness is less of a problem and attendance has improved. Parents report students have a better self-image and better attitudes toward citizenship.

**Materials Needed:**

An existing law-related program (see the section on Law-Related Education for resources).

**Personnel and Training Required:**

A full-time program assistant is needed to work with teachers and individual students in developing work skills and in placing student volunteers.

**Contacts:**

Linda Riekas, St. Louis Public Schools, 4130 East Lexington, St. Louis, Missouri 63115, (314) 531-2000.

**References:**

A program handbook will be available soon from the St. Louis Public Schools.

# Youth Awareness Program

**Purpose:**

To assist students in making positive decisions when they are pressured either by peers or by difficult socioeconomic circumstances.

**Rationale:**

Community, social, civic, business, and governmental groups can join in preparing youth for life in an increasingly impersonal, technological, and complex society.

**Target Audience:**

Students in junior and senior high schools.

**Description:**

Police and school officials in Washington, D.C., designed a "proactive, prevention, and education program" that uses role modeling, interviews, site visits to courts and prisons, simulations, and situational analysis. The teachers, police, and community representatives work with students to explore attitudes and to develop ways to make positive decisions. Issues explored include smoking, alcohol, drugs, sexual abuse, assault, juvenile law, and career choices. Participants are chosen by the principal at each school according to guidelines set up by the program. Although those with attendance and attitude problems are included, the group is a heterogeneous one. Students attend youth awareness classes twice a week for one semester, and have a graduation ceremony when they complete the course.

**Evidence of Effectiveness:**

According to the project director, a post-test in the pilot project showed substantial evidence of positive attitude change and increased knowledge. The greatest changes occurred in the junior high age group.

**Materials Needed:**

Youth Awareness Program resource materials are prepared and will be available from the District of Columbia Public Schools (see Contacts).

**Personnel and Training Required:**

Support personnel are provided by the school system. Police, school staff, experts, and consultants present material in the classroom.

**Contacts:**

Shelton E. Lee or Larry Moss, Youth Awareness Coordinators, District of Columbia Public Schools, Division of Safety and Security, Kramer Annex, 17th and O Streets, S.E., Washington, D.C. 20020, (202) 767-7514.

***"Youth Awareness not only helps students who may be confronting some very serious decisions about their lifestyles, but the program is also a model of how city agencies and the community can work together to solve our problems."***

Larry Moss
Washington D.C. Police

PART III

# RESOURCE AND REFERENCE GUIDE

*"You'll find 'Committee Reports Translation Made Easy' under fiction."*

## Contents


| | |
|---|---|
| **Annotated Books and Recommended Readings** | **185** |
| **Annotated Articles and Recommended Readings** | **197** |
| **Theme-Related Periodicals** | **201** |
| **Theme-Related Congressional Hearings** | **203** |
| **Selected Media Aids** | **205** |
| Audio Cassettes | 205 |
| Films and Filmstrips | 206 |
| Slides | 208 |
| Video Cassettes and Tapes | 208 |
| **Technical Assistance Sources** | **211** |
| **Databases and Clearinghouses** | **217** |
| **Development Resources** | **223** |

# Introduction

This Resource and Reference Guide is designed to furnish school board members, superintendents, principals, curriculum specialists, and other school personnel with current information that will be useful in planning for better and safer schools. Book and article entries have been selected based on:

- Their usefulness as a ready-reference guide to problem-solving.
- The extent to which the information presented is current, readable, and succinct.
- Their accessibility.
- Their relevance to school leaders.

Selections have been limited to the last five years, unless an earlier work generally has been recognized as outstanding and still basic to understanding the present circumstances.

The entries have been selected to serve two purposes:

- To explore further the theoretical issues that form the foundation for effective school and delinquency-prevention programming.
- To highlight the practical experience of those who have planned, implemented, and evaluated programs.

Relevant references to a particular strategy appear in Part II of this handbook, and therefore, are not repeated in this section. The listings are not intended to be exhaustive, but rather, represent a comprehensive sampling of available resources and references. Wherever possible, the names, addresses, and phone numbers of organizations, contact persons, or publishers have been included. Where appropriate, ERIC Clearinghouse numbers also have been noted. Costs are given where available, but any financial arrangements are strictly the responsibility of the parties involved.

The Resource and Reference Guide contains eight sections: Books, Articles, Theme-Related Periodicals, Theme-Related Congressional Hearings, Selected Media Aids, Technical Assistance Sources, Databases and Clearinghouses, and Development Resources.

- Books and Articles have been summarized and listed in alphabetical order by *title*. A list of recommended readings arranged alphabetically by *author* follows each section. These lists were compiled from the submissions of school leaders and practitioners around the country.
- The Theme-Related Periodicals section lists issues devoted to single topics relevant either to effective schools or to delinquency prevention.
- The Theme-Related Congressional Hearings section lists individuals representing a number of organizations and school districts who testified in January 1984 at a series of congressional hearings on school discipline and related issues.
- The Media Aids section presents a selection of audio-visual aids useful for classroom presentation or for teacher training. These are listed by media type. Costs are indicated when they were available.
- The Technical Assistance section lists groups, organizations, schools, and federal and state agencies offering a variety of materials and services. These are listed alphabetically and briefly describe the type of help available.
- Databases and Clearinghouses are listed by state.
- The Development Resources section lists groups and organizations that offer materials and publications to assist in obtaining funding. The groups listed do not fund projects directly.

This Resource and Reference Guide will be useful at any stage of the change process. The annotations and descriptions are intended to help school leaders select those references and resources that will be most useful for assessment, planning, implementation, evaluation, and institutionalization of strategies, programs, or interventions. Because schools and school systems are at various stages of development, this Guide is arranged to accommodate both selective and repeated use.

SECTION ONE

# Books

***All Our Children Learning: A Primer for Parents, Teachers and Other Educators***
Benjamin Bloom
New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1980.
Summarizes education research, discusses development of positive attitudes toward learning, and focuses on the need to find ways to teach students the knowledge they need to master. A collection of articles and speeches that review what is "known and true."

***A Place Called School***
John Goodlad
New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1984.
Discusses the improvements and reforms that can reshape American education.

***Appropriate Resource Materials for the Juvenile Delinquent with Learning Disabilities***
D. Crawford and M. Wilson
Phoenix, Arizona: Research and Development Training Institutes, 1980.
19 pp.
Catalogues resource materials and programs related to the subject.

***Bilingual Education: Parents and Community Awareness Training Manual***
Phyllis A. Noda
Lansing, Michigan: Michigan State Department of Education, Bilingual Education Office, 1978.
76 pp.
Informs parents about their role as members of bilingual advisory committees, how these committees work in the state of Michigan, and how to use these committees effectively.

***Classroom Management***
Daniel L. Duke, Editor
Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1979.
447 pp.

Discusses the provisions and procedures needed to establish and maintain classroom environments that are conducive to teaching and learning. Chapters include such topics as group instruction, authority and management, the problems of student behavior, the exceptional learner, and the rights of students.

***Creating Effective Schools***

Wilbur Brookover, Laurence Beamer, Helen Efthim, Douglas Hathaway, Lawrence Lezotte, Stephen Miller, Joseph Passalacqua, and Louis Tornatzky
Holmes Beach, Florida: Learning Publications, Inc., 1982.
290 pp.

Outlines an in-service training program designed for school staffs that want to improve student achievement by modifying the school learning environment. Eleven modules are provided, all of which have been used by the Pontiac, Michigan, schools in a program of school improvement.

***Crime and Disruption in Schools: A Selected Bibliography***

Compiled by Robert Rubel, Ph.D.
Washington, D.C.: National Institute of Law Enforcement and Criminal Justice, 1979.
104 pp.

Includes an extensive listing of resources, references, agencies, and organizations concerned with disorder in schools. The Executive Summary of the Safe School Study also is included.

***Delinquency Prevention: Theories and Strategies (Rev. ed.)***

Grant Johnson, Tom Bird, Judith Warren Little, and Sylvia Beville

Prepared at the Center for Action Research, Inc., Boulder, Colorado, in conjunction with the staff of the Westinghouse National Issues Center, for the Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention under Contract No. J-LEAA-004-8.
Columbia, Maryland: Westinghouse National Issues Center, June 1981.
238 pp.

Describes some of the fundamental perspectives of delinquency prevention and discusses the design, implementation, and evaluation of promising delinquency prevention programs.

***Directory of Criminal Justice Information Sources***

Compiled by Christine Lundy
Washington, D.C.: U.S. Department of Justice, National Institute of Justice, 1981.
142 pp.

Lists agencies, associations, foundations, institutes, and libraries concerned with criminal justice.

***Directory of Schools Reported to Have Exemplary Discipline***

Gay Su Pinnel, Thomas Lasley, William W. Wayson, George Wynn, and the Phi Delta Kappa Commission on Discipline
Bloomington, Indiana: Phi Delta Kappa, 1982.
120 pp.

Lists numerous schools around the country reported to have exemplary discipline, and describes the noteworthy aspects of their programs.

***The Discipline Book: A Complete Guide to School and Classroom Management***

Richard L. Curwin and Allen N. Mendler
Reston, Virginia: Reston Publishing Company, 1980.
249 pp.

Assesses the role school leaders, teachers, parents, and students must play in developing more productive learning environments. Includes numerous activities and suggestions for teachers to manage classrooms in a way that minimizes or prevents discipline problems.

***Discipline in the Schools: A Guide to Reducing Misbehavior***

Samuel M. Deitz and H. Hummel
Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Educational Technology Publications, Inc., 1978.
270 pp.

Presents the advantages and disadvantages of ten "behavior reduction procedures" useful to educators in addressing student disciplinary problems. The book is divided into three sections

that highlight such issues as defining and measuring misbehavior, understanding the ten procedures, and establishing the limitations of using these methods in reducing misbehavior.

***Educational Programs that Work***
The National Diffusion Network
San Francisco: Far West Laboratory for Educational Research and Development, 1981.
253 pp.

Catalogues exemplary educational programs approved by the Department of Education's Joint Dissemination Review Panel between 1972 and June 1981. The program descriptions are arranged in 12 sections and are divided into two categories: funded and nonfunded.

***Educator's Discipline Handbook***
Robert D. Ramsey
West Nyack, New York: Parker Publishing Company, Inc., 1981.
284 pp.

Describes some of the most successful discipline practices and procedures used by schools across the nation. Includes checklists, case histories, and assertive techniques and discusses tested ways to deal with violence and vandalism, teenage pregnancy, and venereal disease as well as specific problem areas within school.

***Effective Instruction***
Tamar Levin and Ruth Long
Alexandria, Virginia: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, 1981.
102 pp.

Suggests methods for improving student learning and achievement.

***The Effective Principal: Perspectives on School Leadership***
Arthur Blumberg and William Greenfield
Boston: Allyn and Bacon, Inc., 1980.
280 pp.

Profiles the lives and challenges of eight "out-of-the-ordinary" principals who have adopted varied, but effective, leadership styles. The chapters of the book are devoted to the unique strategies and techniques that each principal uses. Many diverse schools are represented.

***Effective Programs for the Marginal High School Student***
Gary Wehlage
Madison, Wisconsin: Wisconsin Center for Educational Research, University of Wisconsin, 1982.
208 pp.

Focuses on the social development and "coping" skills of students who achieve little in school, are frequently in trouble, and often end up as dropouts. This four-part report also describes special programs designed for marginal students, suggests some of the characteristics of effective programs, and explores the possibilities of experiential education.

***Effective Schools and Classrooms: A Research-Based Perspective***
David A. Squires, William G. Huitt, and John K. Segars
Alexandria, Virginia: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, 1983.
136 pp.

Describes how a school's organization, personnel, and climate affect student achievement as well as how school leaders can practically apply theoretical perspectives to the school improvement process.

***Effective Strategies for School Security***
Peter D. Blauvelt
Reston, Virginia: National Association of Secondary School Principals, 1981.
68 pp.

This 68-page book discusses ideas, strategies, and techniques designed to help educators deal more effectively with student disruptions, serious discipline problems, and criminal behavior.

***Everybody's Business: A Book About School Discipline***
Joan McCarty First and M. Hayes Mizell, Editors
Columbia, South Carolina: Southeastern Public Education Program, 1980.
227 pp.

Discusses some nontraditional disciplinary responses public schools can use to reduce disruptive behavior and make schools better academically. The intended audience is parents, teachers, school board members, and interested students. Includes a number of approaches designed specifically to improve school discipline.

***Fifteen Thousand Hours***

Michael Rutter, Barbara Maughan, Peter Mortimore, and Janet Ouston with Alan Smith
Cambridge, Massachusetts: Harvard University Press, 1979.
285 pp.

Discusses the influence schools and teachers have on children during the 15,000 hours they spend in school from age five to graduation.

***The General Educational Development Program: An Alternative for the Delinquent with Learning Disabilities***

D. Crawford and M. Wilson
Phoenix, Arizona: Research and Development Training Institutes, 1980.
9 pp.

Presents a program designed to help learning disabled juveniles who have dropped out of school resume their interest in academics.

***A Guidebook for Discipline Program Planning***

James K. Nighswander
Cambridge, Massachusetts: Oelgeschlager, Gunn and Hain Publishers, Inc., 1981.
194 pp.

Discusses an approach for planning comprehensive, broad-based discipline improvement programs in schools and districts. Provides local level practitioners who have little or no background in discipline-related programming with the tools needed to develop, implement, and evaluate their own discipline improvement program. Contains checklists, charts, and diagrams.

***Handbook for Developing Schools with Good Discipline***

William W. Wayson, Gary G. DeVoss, Susan C. Kaeser, Thomas Lasley, Gay Su Pinnel, and the Phi Delta Kappa Commission on Discipline
Bloomington, Indiana: Phi Delta Kappa, 1982.
100 pp.

Highlights the characteristics, goals, and activities of well-disciplined schools. Also provides a "score card" that enables school leaders, parents, and students to analyze their school programs and to identify specific discipline problems.

***Handbook for Indian Parent Committees***

Louise Miller and Sal Gelardi
Woodland, California: Educational System Planning, Inc., 1980.
48 pp.

Defines parent involvement and discusses the function and authority of parent committees. Lists potential funding sources most likely to require American Indian parent committees and includes checklists for conducting a needs assessment for parent training.

***Handbook for Prevention Evaluation***

John F. French and Nancy J. Kaufman
Washington, D.C.: U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, reprinted 1983.

Written to assist evaluators working with program managers to apply their skills in assessment and improvement of school, community, and family-based prevention programs. Applies state-of-the-art in evaluation and program design to drug and alcohol abuse prevention programs. Applicable for state and local prevention programs. Includes models.

***Information Sources in Criminal Justice***

Anne Newton, Kathleen Yaskiw Perl, and Eugene Doleschal
Hackensack, New Jersey: National Council on Crime and Delinquency, 1976.
164 pp.

An annotated guide to directories, journals, and newsletters related to criminal justice.

***In-School Alternatives to Suspension: Conference Report***

Antoine M. Garibaldi, Editor
Washington, D.C.: National Institute of Education, 1979.
174 pp.

Report of the National Institute of Education's conference to explore alternative approaches to suspension as a disciplinary measure. Reflects a cross-section of opinion on the legal issues in the discipline process, effective implementation and organization of school discipline programs, and the status of discipline in public education. Discusses the pros and cons of alternative programs.

***Juvenile Delinquency Prevention: A Compendium of 36 Program Models***
John S. Wall, J. David Hawkins, Denise Lishner, and Mark Fraser
Washington, D.C.: Law Enforcement Assistance Administration, U.S. Department of Justice, 1981.
157 pp.
Presents and evaluates 36 juvenile delinquency prevention model programs designed to assist readers in identifying promising program prospects based on sound theory.

***Juvenile Justice: Myths and Realities***
Susan C. Farkas, Editor
Washington, D.C.: Institute for Educational Leadership, Inc. 1983.
128 pp.
Presents news articles written by reporters in the 1982 Journalism Fellowship program that examine juvenile crime and justice in six states.

***Legal Aspects of Student Discipline in Ohio***
R. Dean Jollay, Jr.
Westerville, Ohio: Ohio School Boards Association, 1981.
38 pp.
Outlines the procedural requirements for the suspension, expulsion, and removal of students from Ohio public schools. Discusses the legal parameters governing student codes of conduct, search, seizure, and interrogation. Also discusses appropriate forms of punishment, including corporal punishment and physical restraint.

***Making Schools Work: A Reporter's Journey Through Some of America's Most Remarkable Classrooms***
Robert Benjamin
New York: Continuum Publishing Corporation, 1981.
208 pp.
Includes reviews by a former education writer for the *Cincinnati Post* of the techniques and practices used in six inner-city schools that, he says, are rare examples of elementary schools in which the children of the urban poor are learning. Each school is described in separate chapters, including one additional school in northern California. Several characteristics of principals of effective schools are mentioned as well as other examples of factors that make these schools "work."

***Managing Student Behavior Problems***
Daniel Linden Duke
New York: Teachers College Press, 1980.
194 pp.
Promotes the author's Systematic Management Plan for School Discipline, which advocates total school involvement in the management of student behavior. Particular attention is given to the idea that serious discipline problems are not found in the classroom, but rather in the halls, cafeterias, playgrounds, athletic fields, and parking lots of school campuses.

***Managing to Teach***
Carol Cummings
Snohomish, Washington: Snohomish Publishing Company, 1983.
168 pp.
Provides practical ideas for school teachers on managing classrooms more effectively. Topics covered include increased student time on task, how to handle minor disruptions and promote productive behavior, ways to motivate minority students, and techniques for influencing student attitudes.

***Manual for Improving Student Discipline***
Michael V. Woodall
Milford, Delaware: Longfield Institute, 1979.
181 pp.
Addresses the public expectations and legal requirements of the school in controlling student behavior. This loose-leaf manual also offers suggestions for designing, implementing, and

establishing school-wide policies and programs for improving student discipline.

***No Easy Answers***
Sally L. Smith
New York: Bantam Books, Inc., 1981.
326 pp.
Discusses how parents and teachers can work more effectively with children who have learning disabilities.

***No One to Play With: The Social Side of Learning Disabilities***
Betty B. Osman with Henriette Blinder
New York: Random House, 1982.
170 pp.
Focuses on the social problems encountered by the learning disabled and offers ways in which parents, teachers, and other providers of care can help these children make friends and develop social skills.

***Partners for Youth Employability: An Ideabook for Educators and Employers***
Prepared by Andrea Hunter, Education and Work Program
Portland, Oregon: Northwest Regional Educational Laboratory, 1982.
24 pp.
Offers ideas to institutions for helping young people prepare for the realities of the workplace. Content is based on the findings and analysis of experience-based career education which advocates using opportunities within the school to familiarize students with the concept and responsibilities of work. Can be used for in-service or staff development programs.

***Preventing Delinquency: The Social Development Approach***
Joseph G. Weis and David Hawkins
U.S. Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention
Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1981.
77 pp.
Presents the "social development model" of delinquent behavior and its prevention, describes the major correlates of delinquency, specifies social development theory and details the prevention interventions supported by theory and research. Provides a comprehensive approach to school-based delinquency prevention and implementation.

***The Prevention of Serious Delinquency: What to Do?***
Joseph G. Weis and John Sederstrom
U.S. Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention
Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1981.
Describes a comprehensive approach to preventing serious delinquency, particularly in high crime rate communities. Based on "social development model" of delinquency prevention, it describes a set of prevention interventions designed specifically for the community to implement among families, schools, peers, and concerned citizens. A practical guide on "what to do."

***The Private Sector Youth Connection—Volume 1: School to Work***
Henrietta Schilit and Richard Lacey
New York: Vocational Foundation, Inc., 1982.
94 pp.
Identifies and describes 55 programs that receive high marks from school administrators, teachers, students, and employers and demonstrates how school-business partnerships can make education more productive for more students.

***The Relationship Between Learning Disabilities and Juvenile Delinquency***
Noel Dunivant
Williamsburg, Virginia: National Center for State Courts, 1982.
30 pp.
Summarizes the results of a research project that investigated the relationship between learning disabilities and juvenile delinquency.

***Resource Handbook on Discipline Codes***
National School Resource Network
Cambridge, Massachusetts: Oelgeschlager, Gunn and Hain Publishers, Inc., 1980.
278 pp.

Discusses the recent thinking, research, and laws governing student rights and responsibilities; student codes of conduct; and disciplinary procedures and grievances.

***The School Action Effectiveness Study: Second Interim Report, Part I***

Gary D. Gottfredson, Denise C. Gottfredson, and Michael S. Cook
Baltimore, Maryland: Johns Hopkins University, 1983.
142 pp.

Explains the School Action Effectiveness Study, aspects of effective program development, and evaluation. Also features educational interventions and the prevention of delinquency.

***School Climate Improvement: A Challenge to the School Administrator***

Robert S. Fox, et al.
Bloomington, Indiana: Phi Delta Kappa, 1974.
141 pp.

Discusses the primary determinants of school climate improvement. Also includes an instrument for assessing school climate factors as a basis for school improvement.

***School Climate Renewal Handbook***

Ricard R. Dumaresq and Ross S. Blust
Fennsylvania Department of Education, 1983.
51 pp.

An easy-to-read manual that outlines the issues in climate renewals and the steps in managing and monitoring changes in the school environment.

***School Crime: The Problem and Some Attempted Solutions***

Washington, D.C.: National Institute of Law Enforcement and Criminal Justice, 1979.
12 pp.

Offers a cursory view of hardware, prevention, correction, and cooperation among agencies in reducing discipline problems. Includes a list of helpful agencies.

***School Crime And Violence: Problems and Some Solutions***

Joseph I. Grealy
Fort Lauderdale, Florida: Ferguson E. Peters Company, 1980.
374 pp.

Offers veteran school security official's insights into making schools safer. Topics discussed include installing alarm systems, conducting locker searches, managing bomb scares, and locating supportive funding sources.

***School Discipline Desk Book***

Eugene R. Howard
West Nyack, New York: Parker Publishing Company, Inc., 1978.
250 pp.

Offers scores of tested solutions to numerous behavior problems, and outlines detailed plans for implementing these ideas in elementary and secondary schools. Contains helpful charts and diagrams.

***School Programs for Disruptive Adolescents***

Daniel Safer
Baltimore, Maryland: University Park Press, 1982.
364 pp.

Reviews the behavioral problems of disruptive youth and the interventions that can be used to correct these problems. Includes information about funding sources.

***School Vandalism: Strategies for Prevention***

Michael D. Casserly, Scott A. Bass, and John R. Garrett
Lexington, Massachusetts: Lexington Books, 1980.
166 pp.

The authors discuss the research on school vandalism, major options for addressing the problem, case studies of prevention programs, and the steps involved in designing a school vandalism prevention program.

***School Violence Prevention Manual***

National School Resource Network
Cambridge, Massachusetts: Oelgeschlager, Gunn and Hain Publishers, Inc., 1980.
280 pp.

Consists of a series of Technical Assistance Bulletins designed to assist teachers and administrators address specific problems concerning violence and vandalism in schools.

***Strategies for School Improvement***
D.C. Neale, W.S. Bailey, and B.E. Ross
Newton, Massachusetts: Allyn and Bacon Publishers, 1981.
288 pp.
Outlines for practitioners, policy considerations and organizational strategies that can be used for school improvement. Includes information about change agent roles, group dynamics, and administrative issues.

***Student Discipline: AASA Critical Issues Report***
Ben Brodinsky
Arlington, Virginia: American Association of School Administrators, 1980.
80 pp.
Discusses information provided by 2,000 administrators on addressing specific problems of student discipline. There are suggestions for coping with smoking, vandalism, violence, expulsion, and other aspects of antisocial behavior.

***The Solution Book: A Guide to Classroom Discipline***
Randal Sprick
Chicago: Science Research Associates, Inc., 1981.
A loose-leaf handbook of 100 solution sheets, each describing a specific behavior problem. Each sheet discusses the causes of the problem, a goal for improving the behavior, and a step-by-step plan for achieving the goal. Also includes a series of booklets concerning various instructional and administrative issues.

***Teaching Makes a Difference***
Carol Cummings with Cliff Nelson and Dian Shaw
Snohomish, Washington: Snohomish Publishing Company, 1980.
188 pp.
An easy-to-read book that emphasizes some basic principles involved in developing instructional skills. Uses diagrams, illustrations, and checklists to stimulate the reader's thinking about how students learn and how to help them learn better.

***Teaching Tools for Primary Prevention: A Guide to Classroom Curricula***
Rockville, Maryland: National Institute on Drug Abuse.
Available from NIDA Prevention Branch
A compendium of programs and materials indexed by major topics and grade level. Each review includes description of program, contact, costs, materials, and training.

***Violence and Crime in the Schools***
Keith Baker and Robert J. Rubel, Editors
Lexington, Massachusetts: Lexington Books, 1980.
295 pp.
A compilation of 20 articles by various writers concerning the history of school violence and vandalism, how schools have been victimized, and ways in which the social patterning of deviant roles develops in schools.

***Violent Schools—Safe Schools: The Safe School Study Report to Congress***
U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare
Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1978.
357 pp.
Outlines the findings of the Safe School Study mandated by Congress to assess the frequency, seriousness, and incidence of crime in elementary and secondary schools in all regions of the United States. The report covers the cost of repairing and replacing school equipment, the methods used by schools to prevent crime, and suggestions for making crime prevention efforts more effective. Complete with graphs, charts, and summaries of the research findings.

***Working with Evaluators: A Guide for Drug Abuse Prevention Program Managers***
John F. French, Court C. Fisher, and Samuel J. Costa, Jr.
Washington, D.C.: U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, 1983.
Written as a companion volume to *Handbook for Prevention Evaluation*. Designed for prevention

program managers. Intended to assist in understanding, designing, and conducting program evaluations. Includes models.

## Suggested Readings from the Field


**Berman, P., and W. McLaughlin**
*Federal Programs Supporting Educational Change: Factions Affecting Implementation and Continuation. Vol. VII.* Santa Monica, California: Rand Corporation, 1977.

**Blumberg, Arthur, and William Greenfield**
*The Effective Principal: Perspectives on School Leadership.* Boston: Allyn and Bacon, Inc., 1980.

**Bowermaster, Janet**
*Classroom Management and Learning in Elementary Schools.* Urbana, Illinois: ERIC Clearinghouse on Elementary and Early Childhood Education, 1981.

**Boyer, Ernest**
*High School: A Report on American Secondary Education.* New York: Harper & Row, 1983.

**Keys to School Boardmanship—School Improvement**
Washington, D.C.: National School Boards Association and Northwest Regional Educational Laboratory, 1982.

**Brookover, Wilbur, et al.**
*Creating Effective Schools: An In-Service Program for Enhancing School Learning Climate and Achievement.* Holmes Beach, Florida: Learning Publications, Inc., 1982.

**Brookover, W.B., and L.W. Lezotte**
*Changes in School Characteristics Coincident with Changes in Student Achievement.* East Lansing, Michigan: Michigan State University, Institute for Research on Teaching, College of Education, 1979.

**Canter, Lee**
*Assertive Discipline.* New York: Harper and Row, 1982.
*Classroom Discipline. The Best of ERIC on Educational Management. No. 52*
Eugene, Oregon: Oregon University, ERIC Clearinghouse on Educational Management, April 1980.
*Classroom Management: Teaching Techniques and Strategies for Dealing with Discipline Problems*
Atlanta, Georgia: Atlanta Teachers Corps, 1978.
*Discipline Task Force Report.*
Washington State Board of Education, 1982.

**Denver, Philip**
*Violence and Vandalism in the Schools.* Flint, Michigan: National Community Education Association, 1977.
*Delinquency Prevention Through Alternative Education.* Washington, D.C.: Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention, Feb. 1980.

**Edmonds, Ronald R.**
*A Discussion of the Literature and Issues Related to Effective Schooling.* Washington, D.C.: Howard University, 1978.

**Elliott, Delbert S., Brian Knowles, and Rachelle J. Canter**
*The Epidemiology of Delinquent Behavior and Drug Use Among American Adolescents.* Boulder, Colorado: Behavioral Research Institute, June 1981.

**Genck, Fredric H., and Allen J. Klingenberg**
*Effective Schools Through Effective Management.* Springfield, Illinois: Illinois Association of School Boards, 1978.

**Glynn, Thomas J., Ph.D, ed.**
*Research Issue No. 33, Drug Abuse Prevention Research.* Available from National Clearinghouse on Drug Abuse Information, 5600 Fishers Lane, Rockville, Maryland 20857.

**Glynn, Thomas J., Carl G. Leukefeld, and Jacqueline P. Gudford, eds.**
*Research Monograph 47, Preventing Adolescent Drug Abuse: Intervention Strategies.* Available from National Clearinghouse on Drug Abuse Information, 5600 Fishers Lane, Rockville, Maryland 20857.

**Gottfredson, G.D., R.D. Joffe, and D.C. Gottfredson**
*Measuring Victimization and the Explanation of*

*School Disruption* (Report No. 306) . Baltimore, Maryland: Johns Hopkins University, CSOS, 1981.

**Gottfredson, G.D., ed.**
*The School Action Effectiveness Study: First Interim Report.* Report No. 325. Baltimore, Maryland: Johns Hopkins University, CSOS, 1982.

**Gorton, Richard A., and Kenneth E. McIntyre**
*The Senior High School Principalship: The Effective Principal. Vol. 2.* Reston, Virginia: National Association of Secondary School Principals, 1978.

**Harvey, Karen D.**
*Classroom Management: An Annotated Bibliography.* Eric Document 198075, 1980.

**Hirshi, T.**
*Causes of Delinquency.* Berkeley: University of California Press, 1969.

**Jencks, Christopher**
*Inequality: A Reassessment of the Effect of Family and Schooling in America.* New York: Basic Books, 1972.

**Johnson, Grant, et al.**
*A Guide for Delinquency Prevention Programs Based in School Activities: A Working Paper.* Columbia, Maryland: Westinghouse National Issues Center, April 1980.

**Katz, M.B.**
*Class, Bureaucracy and Schools: The Illusion of Educational Change in America.* New York: Praeger, 1975.

**Lipham, James M.**
*Effective Principal, Effective School.* Reston, Virginia: National Association of Secondary School Principals, 1981.

**Little, Judith Warren, and Margaret Sharrow**
*Delinquency Prevention: Selective Organizational Change in the School. Rev. ed.* Columbia, Maryland: Westinghouse National Issues Center, May 1981.

**Maeroff, Gene I.**
*Don't Blame the Kids: The Trouble with America's Public Schools.* New York: McGraw-Hill, 1982.

*Managing Unusual Classroom Problems (3 Modules). Description of Teacher In-service Education Materials.* Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, April 1977.

**McPartland, J.M., and E.L. McDill**
*Violence in Schools: Perspectives, Programs and Positions.* Lexington, Massachusetts: Lexington Books, 1977.

**Peters, Thomas J., and Robert H. Waterman, Jr.**
*In Search of Excellence: Lessons from America's Best-Run Companies.* New York: Harper and Row, 1982.

*Safer Schools: Goals and Strategies Rev. ed.* Washington State: Office of Superintendent of Public Instruction, July 1983.

**Sarason, S.B.**
*The Culture of the School and the Problem of Change.* Boston, Massachusetts: Allyn and Bacon, Inc., 1971.

**Smith, S.C., J. Mazzarella, and P.K. Piele, eds.**
*School Leadership: Handbook for Survival.* Eugene, Oregon: ERIC Clearinghouse on Educational Management, University of Oregon, 1981.

**Squires, David A.**
*Characteristics of Effective Schools: The Importance of School Processes.* Philadelphia, Pennsylvania: Research for Better Schools, Oct. 1980.

**Taffee, Stephen J.**
*Values and the Search for Discipline—Some Strategies.* Eric 194465, 1980.

**Ubokudom, Sam James**
*Leadership Behavior of School Administrators.* New York: Vantage Press, 1982.

**Usitalo, Richard**
*Risk Management.* Washington State: Washington State School Directors Association, 1981.

**van Vliet, Willem**
*Vandalism: A Selected Bibliography.* Chicago: Council of Planning Librarians, July 1983.

**Wayson, William W.**
*Developing Schools that Teach Self-Discipline.* Eric 196169, 1980.

**Weis, Joseph G., and J. David Hawkins**
*Background Paper for Delinquency Prevention Research and Development Program.* Washington, D.C.: U.S. Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention, 1979.

**Weis, Joseph G., Richard L. Janvier, and J. David Hawkins, eds.**
*Delinquency Prevention Program Elements: The Social Development Approach.* Washington, D.C.: U.S. Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention, 1982.

SECTION TWO

# Articles

**A Rapid, Effective Technique for Controlling Disruptive Classroom Behaviors**
Gary L. Woodward et al.
*Journal of Educational Research,* July-Aug. 1981, pp. 397-99.
Describes a device used to monitor time lost due to inappropriate classroom behavior and subsequent class participation to minimize wasted time.

**A Lesson Plan Approach for Dealing with School Discipline**
John R. Ban
*Clearing House,* April 1982, pp. 345-58.
Proposes that students participate in establishing classroom rules and describes the procedures and forms inherent in any effective disciplinary system.

**Classroom Discipline: The Unclaimed Legacy**
Regina S. Jones and Laurel S. Tanner
*Phi Delta Kappan,* March 1981, pp. 494-97.
Promotes pupil self-direction as a necessary element of addressing discipline in the classroom and throughout the school.

**Classroom Management**
Esther Gregg Davis
*Kappa Delta Pi Record,* Feb. 1981, pp. 79-80.
Suggests that effective classroom management begins with teacher self-evaluation and an assessment of each student's strengths and weaknesses.

**Classroom Management and Learning**
Jere E. Brophy
*American Education,* March 1982, pp. 20-23.
Uses survey results to show that planning and constant vigilance are the price of effective teaching.

**Disciplinary Strategies**
Barbara Talent and Suzanne G. Busch
*Today's Education,* Feb.-March 1982, pp. 38-41.

Includes practical techniques for the teacher in helping the child deal with behavior problems and learn to establish self-control.

**Discipline and Responsibility**
Angela H. Riley
*Teacher Educator,* Summer 1980, pp. 28-33.
Describes the interdependence between the process of teacher self-assessment and the development of student self-concept.

**Discipline in the 1980s: Some Alternatives to Corporal Punishment**
Irwin A. Hyman and Dolores Lally
*Children Today,* Jan.-Feb. 1982, pp. 10-13.
Discusses implications of various theoretical points of view for responding to disciplinary problems in the classroom.

**Discipline is No Problem with My Middle School 'Student of the Week'**
Maria B. Gerardi
*Clearing House,* April 1981, p. 381.
Shares one teacher's positive motivational disciplinary tool.

**Effective Approaches to Classroom Discipline**
Vanessa Dean Arnold
*Journal of Business Education,* April 1982, pp. 262-65.
Presents a practical approach to resolving difficulties experienced by classroom teachers in the areas of student rights, behavior correction, conferences, behavioral standards, and punishment.

**Evaluating a Preventive Approach to Reducing School Vandalism**
G. Roy Mayer and Thomas W. Butterworth
*Phi Delta Kappan,* March 1981, pp. 498-99.
Discusses the findings of a three-year study which shows that 20 schools from 12 districts were effective in reducing vandalism during each year of the study.

**Get Kids Interested in the Law Before the Law Gets Interested in Them**
*Instructor,* April 1983, pp. 62-76.
Presents educational strategies designed to teach young people about the consequences of breaking the law. Describes six laws commonly broken by youth.

**How Education Associations Fight Violence: New Jersey**
*Today's Education,* April-May 1980, pp. 24-25.
Describes a program in which schools, communities, and the police work together to prevent delinquency.

**How to Be an Effective Authoritarian: A Back-to-Basics Approach to Classroom Discipline**
Thomas R. McDaniel
*Clearing House,* Feb. 1982, pp. 245-47.
Argues that effective authoritarians establish their authority in the classroom so that, eventually, they can relinquish it to students, who must learn to become responsible citizens of school and society.

**Improving Classroom Discipline**
Joe Przychodzin
*Clearing House,* September 1981, pp. 16-19.
Advocates positive discipline based on teacher behavior which demonstrates self-confidence, courtesy, fairness, respect, and sensitivity.

**Managing Problem Students**
John Guthrie
*Reading Teacher,* Dec. 1981, pp. 380-82.
Reviews a recent study relating teachers' understanding of their students to various types of classroom management programs.

**The Process of Program Evaluation**
John Van Maanen
*The Grantsmanship Center News,* Jan.-Feb. 1979, pp. 30-74.
Considers the needs of the practicing administrator who wishes to evaluate programs and to use the results to improve continuing programs.

**Research Perspectives on Classroom Management**
Thomas J. Lasley
*Journal of Teacher Education,* March-April 1981, pp. 14-17.

Discusses four characteristics of effective classroom management based on an inductive analysis of disciplinary studies.

**Research Report—Administrators' Perceptions of Aggressive Behaviors**
John Pisarra and John F. Giblette
*NASSP Bulletin,* Jan. 1981, pp. 49-53.
Discusses lack of consistency in administrators' responses to various behaviors warranting suspension.

**Steps Toward Poor Discipline or 'What Not to Do in the Classroom'**
Myrna R. Hood and James M. Hood
*Education,* Winter 1981, pp. 170-72.
Explores teachers' weaknesses that encourage disciplinary problems within the classroom. Features a checklist for teachers to evaluate their steps toward better classroom discipline.

**Successful Techniques for Working with Disruptive Students**
Ronald S. Laneve
*Journal of the International Association of Pupil Personnel Workers,* Winter 1981, pp. 5-16.
Discusses the role of schools, families, educators, and students in confronting student disruption, and prospects for building student self-image.

**The Principal as Instructional Leader: A Second Look**
Russell Gersten, et al.
*Educational Leadership,* Dec. 1982, pp. 47-50.
Emphasizes the roles of supervisors and teachers in supporting principals in their leadership responsibilities.

**Wanted: Strong Instructional Leaders**
Ursula C. Pinero
*Principal,* March 1982, pp. 16-19.
Stresses the importance of the principal's instructional leadership in promoting school effectiveness.

**What Can Principals Do? Leadership Functions and Instructional Effectiveness**
Daniel L. Duke
*NASSP Bulletin,* Oct. 1982, pp. 1-12.
Identifies four leadership functions that are concerned with achieving instructional effectiveness.

**What is a Disciplined Classroom?**
Theodore Lehmann, II
*Independent School,* May 1981, pp. 41-44.
Notes some of the common features of classroom discipline and recent educational trends regarding discipline.

**What's Your P.Q. (Principalship Quotient)? A Quiz on Improving Instruction**
Thomas R. McDaniel
*Phi Delta Kappan,* March 1982, pp. 464-68.
Features a true-false quiz and lengthy answers that focus primarily on the principal's responsibility for instructional improvement.

## Suggested Readings from the Field

**All Fast Life Means is Early Death, Locked-up Delinquents Try to Steer Others Right**
*The Washington Post,* June 12, 1982, p. 81.

**Assessing Teacher Performance**
*Educational Leadership,* Dec. 1980, pp. 219-220.

**Austin, G.R.**
"Exemplary Schools and the Search for Effectiveness." *Educational Leadership,* Vol. 37 (1979), pp. 10-14.

**Edmonds, Ronald R.**
"Programs of School Improvement: An Overview." *Educational Leadership,* Dec. 1982, pp. 4-11.

**Greenberg, A., and Andrea Hunter**
"Striving for Excellence: Middle Schoolers Study 'Work'." *Ideas for Action in Education and Work.* Portland, Oregon: Northwest Regional Educational Laboratory, Sept. 1982.

**Hager, James L., and L.E. Scarr**
"Effective Schools—Effective Principals: How to Develop Both." *Educational Leadership,* Feb. 1983.

**Howe, Harold, II**
"Education Moves to Center Stage: An Overview of Recent Studies." *Phi Delta Kappan,* Nov. 1983.

**Jacobs, E F.**
"Listen and Learn: Here's How Memphis Cut Vandalism Costs in Half." *The Executive Educator,* Jan. 1980, p. 28.

**Levine, Daniel U., and Joyce Stark**
"Instructional and Organizational Arrangements that Improve Achievement in Inner-City Schools." *Educational Leadership,* Dec. 1982, pp. 41-46.

**Macnow, Glen**
"Violence Casts Pall Over Teachers' Lives." *Detroit Free Press,* Sept. 19, 1983.

**McDermott, Joan**
"High Anxiety: Fear of Crime in Secondary Schools." *Contemporary Education,* Vol. 52, No. 1 (Fall 1980), p. 21.

**Newmann, F.M.**
"Reducing Student Alienation in High Schools: Implication of Theory." *Harvard Education Review,* Vol. 51 (Nov. 1981) pp. 446-564.

**On School Improvement: A Conversation with Ronald Edmonds**
*Educational Leadership,* Dec. 1982, p. 13.

**Purkey, Stewart C., and Marshall S. Smith**
"Too Soon to Cheer? Synthesis of Research on Effective Schools." *Educational Leadership,* Dec. 1982, pp. 64-68.

**"Research Synthesis of Effective School Leadership"**
*Educational Leadership,* Feb. 1982, p. 349.

**Schimmel, David M., and Jeffrey W. Eiseman**
"School Discipline, Round Two." *Update on Law-Related Education,* Fall 1982.

**Shoemaker, J., and H. Fraser**
"What Principals Can Do: Some Implications from Studies of Effective Schooling." *Phi Delta Kappan,* Nov. 1981, pp. 178-182.

**Study Finds Crime No Major Problem in Virginia's Middle High Schools**
*Public Education in Virginia,* Vol. 18, No. 3 (Fall 1982), p. 1.

**Sorenson, Gail Paulus**
"The Worst Kinds of Discipline." *Update on Law-Related Discipline.* Fall 1982, p. 27.

**Wayson, William W., and Gay Su Pinnell**
"Developing Discipline with Quality Schools." *Citizen Guide to Quality Education.* Cleveland, Ohio: Citizens' Council for Ohio Schools, 1978.

**Wilson, James Q.**
"Raising Kids." *Atlantic Monthly,* Sept. 1983, pp. 45-56.

SECTION THREE

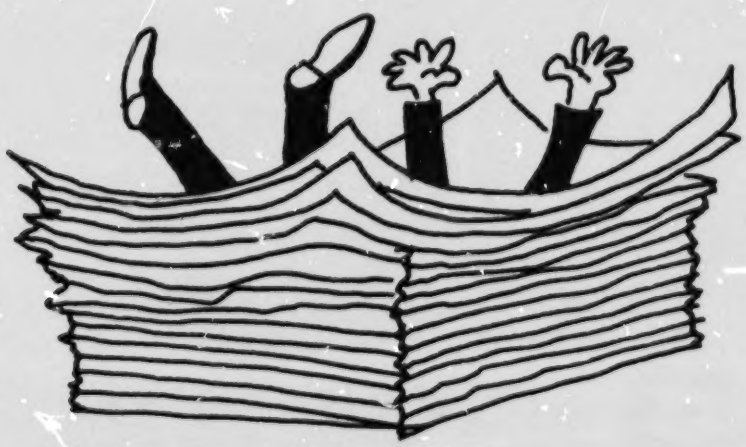
# Theme-Related Periodicals

**The American School Board Journal**
Washington, D.C.: National School Boards Association.
Vol. 170, No. 6 (June 1983).
Theme issue entitled "School Crime: Who It Hurts, Where It Happens, How to Stop It."

**Campus Strife: The Educator's Crime Prevention Quarterly**
School Safety Center
Office of the Attorney General
California Department of Justice
Suite 290
Sacramento, California 95814
Quarterly publication discusses crime-prevention issues of interest to educators.

**Contemporary Education**
Terre Haute, Indiana: Indiana State University.
Fall 1980.
Theme issue on "Crime and Violence in Public Schools: Emerging Perspectives of the 1980s."

**Educational Leadership**
Alexandria, Virginia: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development
Issue on "Toward More Effective Schools"
Vol. 40, No. 3 (Dec. 1982).
Issue on "Developing Leadership"
Vol. 39, No. 5 (Feb. 1982).
Issue on "Mastery Learning"
Vol. 37, No. 2 (Nov. 1979).
Issue on "School Effectiveness, Teacher Effectiveness"
Vol. 37, No. 1 (Oct. 1979).
Issue on "Transplanting School Success"
Vol. 41, No. 2 (Nov. 1983).



## Periodicals

**Educational R & D Report**
Washington, D.C.: Council for Educational Development and Research Vol. 5, No. 4 (Winter '82-'83).
Theme issue entitled "Warning: Schools May Contribute to the Delinquency of Minors."

**Research Report**
Washington, D.C.: National School Boards Association
Theme issue on "Student Discipline: Practical Approaches."

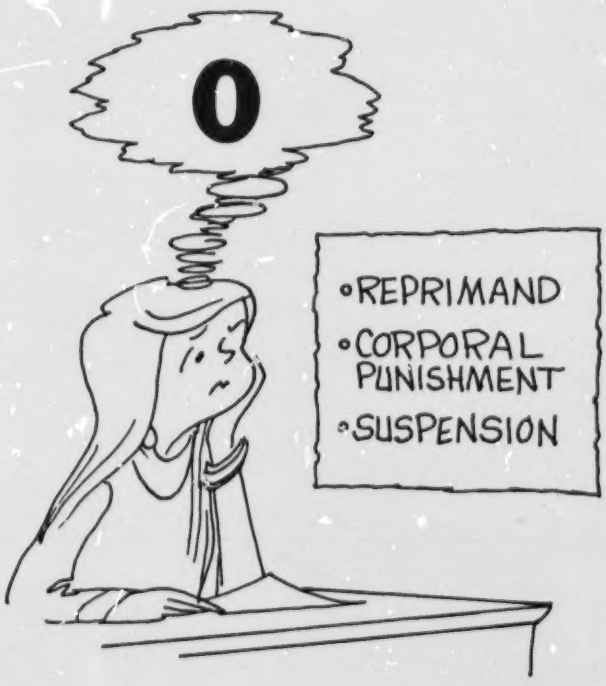
**PTA Today**
Chicago, Illinois: Parent-Teacher Association Oct. 1980.
Theme issue entitled "Discipline: A Many-Splintered Thing"

**Prevention Resources**
Rockville, Maryland: National Institute on Drug Abuse, Prevention Branch.
A quarterly publication that discusses issues related to prevention of drug abuse.

**The Urban Review**
New York: Agathon Press, Inc.
Vol. 14, Nos. 3 and 4 (1982).
Theme issues entitled "Control of Students: A Second Look at Discipline" (Two parts).

SECTION FOUR

# Theme-Related Congressional Hearings




**U.S. House of Representatives**

Subcommittee on Elementary, Secondary, And Vocational Education

Washington, D.C.
January 23, 1984

**Dr. Gary Gottfredson**
Director, Program in Delinquency and School Environments, Center for Social Organization of Schools, Johns Hopkins University, Baltimore, Maryland.

**Dr. Bill Wayson**
Professor of Educational Policy and Leadership, Ohio State University; Chairperson, Phi Delta Kappa Commission on Discipline.

**Jack Isch**
Assistant Superintendent, Oklahoma City Public Schools; Representing: American Association of School Administrators.

**Josiane Gregoire**
Student, Midwood High School, Brooklyn, New York; Accompanied by: Janet Price, Senior Attorney, Advocates for Children.

Washington, D.C.
January 24, 1984

**Gary L. Bauer**
Deputy Under Secretary for Planning, Budget, and Evaluation, U.S. Department of Education.

**Mary Hatwood Futrell**
President, National Education Association.

**Dr. Michael Casserly**
Director of Legislation, Council of Great City Schools.

**Dr. Irwin A. Hyman**
Director, National Center for the Study of Corporal Punishment and Alternatives in the Schools; Professor of School Psychology, Temple University; Representing: American Psychological Association, Association for the Advancement of Psychology.

**U.S. Senate**

Committee on The Judiciary
Subcommittee on Juvenile Justice

Washington, D.C.

January 25, 1984

**Albert Shanker**
President, American Federation of Teachers.

**Alfred S. Regnery**
Administrator, Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention, U.S. Department of Justice.

**Gary L. Bauer**
Deputy Under Secretary for Planning, Budget, and Evaluation, U.S. Department of Education.

**Hon. Patrick Williams**
U.S. House of Representatives, Western District, Montana.

**Peter F. Flynn, Ph.D.**
Superintendent, School District of the City of Scranton, Pennsylvania.

**Constance E. Clayton, Ph.D.**
Superintendent, School District of the City of Philadelphia, Pennsylvania.

**Floretta McKenzie**
Superintendent, School District of the District of Columbia, Washington, D.C.

SECTION FIVE

# Selected Media Aids

*"No, Wilson, I do not consider those appropriate educational hardware!"*

## Audio Cassettes

**The Characteristics of Schools that are Instructionally Effective for All Pupils**
Features educator Ron Edmonds
73 minutes
Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development
225 North Washington Street
Alexandria, Virginia 22314
(703) 549-9110
Details the research and describes New York City's effective schools project.

**Research on Effective Schools**
75 minutes
Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development
225 North Washington Street
Alexandria, Virginia 22314
(703) 549-9110
Identifies and explains the process used by prominent researchers in structuring instructionally effective schools.

**Research on Effective Schools and Effective Teachers: Strategies for Implementation in Local Schools**
70 minutes
Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development
225 North Washington Street
Alexandria, Virginia 22314
(703) 549-9110
Describes how schools have used effective research in the school improvement process.

## Films and Filmstrips

**Belonging**
25 minutes
Cooperative Learning Center
University of Minnesota
Minneapolis, Minnesota 55455
Focuses on mainstreaming and models the use of cooperative learning methods and creation of supportive and constructive relationships among diverse students.

**The Blackboard Jumble**
Color, 23 minutes
Lauren Productions, Inc.
P.O. Box 666
Mendocino, California 94560
(707) 937-0525
Describes how a police department's awareness of learning disabilities has enabled the department to channel delinquents to special programs.

**Catch 'em Being Good**
Color, 30 minutes, 16 mm.
Prentice Hall, Inc.
Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey 07632
(201) 592-2404
Discusses a variety of research methods focusing on school-based problems.

**Circles of Learning**
30 minutes
Cooperative Learning Center
University of Minnesota
Minneapolis, Minnesota 55455
(612) 373-5829
Focuses on teaching social skills as part of the Cooperative Learning approach.

**Failing to Learn—Learning to Fail**
Color, 52 minutes, 11 mm. Films, Inc.
733 Greenbay Road
Wilmette, Illinois 60091
(312) 674-6270
Discusses minimal brain dysfunction and how it can lead to antisocial delinquent behavior.

**Improving School Climate Filmstrip Kit**
Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development
225 North Washington Street
Alexandria, Virginia 22314
(703) 549-9110
Includes three filmstrips with audio cassettes and a leader's guide describing the concept of school climate, its basic characteristics, and the determinants of effective schools and how they can be applied.

**Misbehavior: What You Could Have Done But Didn't**
Color, 30 minutes, 16 mm.
American Personnel and Guidance Association
Two Skyline Plaza, Suite 400
5203 Leesburg Pike
Falls Church, Virginia 22041
(703) 823-9800
Discusses various disruptive behaviors characteristic of the discouraged child.

**More Than Just a Job**
Color, 20 minutes, 16 mm.
Northwest Regional Educational Laboratory
300 Southwest Sixth Street
Portland, Oregon 97204
(800) 547-6339
Shows how federally funded youth employment programs can help students make educational and career decisions.

**More Than Just a Place to Come**
Color, 20 minutes, 16 mm.
Mitchell Gebhardt Film Co.
1380 Bush Street
San Francisco, California 94109
or
NCJRS Access No. 36168
National Criminal Justice Reference Service
P.O. Box 6000
Rockville, Maryland 20850
(800) 638-8736
A documentary about school violence and vandalism: the causes, the effects, and the

programs public schools can consider in restoring order to schools.

**No More Secrets**
Color, 13 minutes, 16 mm.—$300, 3/4 video—$270, 1/2 video—$290
O.D.N. Productions, Inc.
74 Carick Street, Suite 304
New York, New York 10013
(212) 431-8923
An animated film focusing on sexually abused children. Intended as a lead-in to discussions with children and adolescents.

**Out of the Mouths of Babes and Other People Too**
Color, 30 minutes, 16 mm.
American Personnel and Guidance Association
Two Skyline Plaza, Suite 400
5203 Leesburg Pike
Falls Church, Virginia 22041
(703) 823-9800
Describes methods to be used by teachers in helping young people think and behave responsibly.

**Preventing Delinquency: The Social Development Approach**
Color, 28 minutes, 16 mm. and video cassette (VHS)
Developed by the Center for Law and Justice for the U.S. Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention
National Criminal Justice Reference Service
Department F
Box 6000
Rockville, Maryland 20850
(301) 251-5500
or
Center for Law and Justice
JD-45
University of Washington
Seattle, Washington 98195
(206) 543-1485
Presents the social development model of delinquency prevention, which focuses on the family, school, peer, and community influences that strengthen social bonding experiences and prevent delinquency. Particular emphasis is on school effectiveness and delinquency prevention. May be used as an educational and training tool for parents, teachers, administrators, and community.

**The Reluctant Delinquent**
Color, 24 minutes
Lauren Productions, Inc.
P.O. Box 666
Mendocino, California 94560
(707) 937-0536
Presents a case study of a learning disabled delinquent who receives assistants from his school and local police.

**Suicide: Teenage Crisis**
Color, 10 minutes, 16 mm.—$180, 3/4 video—$135
CRM - McGraw Hill Film
Del Mar, California 92014
(619) 481-8184
Discusses how school and community programs can save troubled teens from committing suicide.

**Teenage Turn On: Drinking and Drugs**
Color, 38 minutes, 16 mm.—$595, 3/4 video—$450 CRM
McGraw Hill Film
Del Mar, California 92014
(619) 481-8184
A documentary on alcohol and drug addiction.

**Who Cares: The Counselor's Role in the American School**
Color, 28 minutes, 16 mm.
Produced by the American School Counselor Association
American Personnel and Guidance Association
Two Skyline Plaze, Suite 400
5203 Leesburg Pike
Falls Church, Virginia 22041
(703) 823-9800
Discusses the counselor's role in the educational and individual maturation process. Depicts real-life situations involving counselors in elementary and secondary schools.

## Additional Sources for Films

**Drug Abuse Prevention Films: A Multicultural Film Catalog**
Rockville, Maryland: U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, 1978.
National Clearinghouse for Drug Abuse Information
5600 Fishers Lane
Rockville, Maryland 20857
An annotated listing of 29 films reviewed by the Center for Multicultural Awareness and found to be particularly useful to minority prevention programs and of good technical quality.

## Slide Tapes

**Delinquency Prevention: A Promising Approach**
Developed by Westinghouse National Issues Center for the Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention, 1981
Westinghouse National Issues Center
American City Building
P.O. Box 866
Columbia, Maryland 21044
(301) 992-0066
A multi-media presentation that focuses on ways in which organizations can change the methods they use to reduce alienation among those youth likely to become delinquent.

**The Elements of Elementary School Success**
Color, 14 minutes
Phi Delta Kappa
P.O. Box 789
Bloomington, Indiana 47402
(812) 339-1156
Based on a task force study that examined why some urban elementary schools succeed. Includes sixty-six 35 mm. slides, cassette-tape narration, and a printed script book.

**Open Road Student Involvement: A Guide for Reducing Campus Tensions and Improving School Climate**
Produced by the National School Resource Network
Citizens Policy Center
1515 Webster Street, Room 401
Oakland, California 94612
(415) 839-9037
A slide tape show documenting the student involvement process.

**Vandalism: The Price is High**
District of Columbia Public Schools
Safety and Security Division
17th and Q Streets, S.E.
Washington, D.C. 20020
(202) 767-7514
Slide tape presentation on the effects of vandalism in the Washington, D.C., public schools.

## Video Cassettes and Tapes

**Children in Trouble—Families in Crisis**
½ inch reel-to-reel videotape, ¾ inch video cassette
Ford Foundation
320 East 43rd Street
New York, New York 10017
(212) 573-5000
Demonstrates a Sacramento 601 Diversion Project training session concerning family counseling approaches for incorrigible children.

**Effective Classroom Management for the Elementary School**
30 minute videotape
Based on research by Carolyn Everton of the University of Texas
Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development
225 North Washington Street
Alexandria, Virginia 22314
(703) 549-9110
Highlights an elementary teacher's class and how she greets and orients her students to the rules and procedures that contribute to the orderliness of her classroom environment.

**Effective Schooling as Delinquency Prevention**
Color, 22 minutes
Produced by WFTV, Channel 9, Orlando, Florida,

April 1982
Center for Action Research
1125 Spruce Street
Boulder, Colorado 80302
(303) 443-7977

Video documentary and training film which emphasizes school effectiveness practices (such as Mastery Learning, Student Team Learning, and Interactive Teaching) as promoters of social bonds and law-abiding behavior.

**Effective Teaching for Higher Achievement**

Series of videotapes
Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development
225 North Washington Street
Alexandria, Virginia 22314
(703) 549-9110

Explains the types of teaching that lead to higher test scores. Includes information about academic learning time, organizing the classroom, influencing student behavior, teacher expectations, and the quality of instruction.

**Mastery Teaching**

20 videotape modules
Instructional Dynamics, Inc.
845 Via de la Paz, Suite A 177
Pacific Palisades, California 90272
(213) 454-3061

Designed to increase instructional effectiveness in secondary schools.

**Teacher and School Effectiveness**

½ inch reel-to-reel, ½ inch Beta, or ½ inch VHS
Features prominent educators Ron Edmonds, Barak Rosenshine, and Peter Mortimore
Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development
225 North Washington Street
Alexandria, Virginia 22314
(703) 549-9110

Discusses how these researchers apply their findings to actual school improvement programs.

SECTION SIX

# Technical Assistance Sources

**American Bar Association**
Special Committee on Youth Education for Citizenship (YEFC)
1155 East 60th Street
Chicago, Illinois 60637
(312) 947-4000
Norman Gross

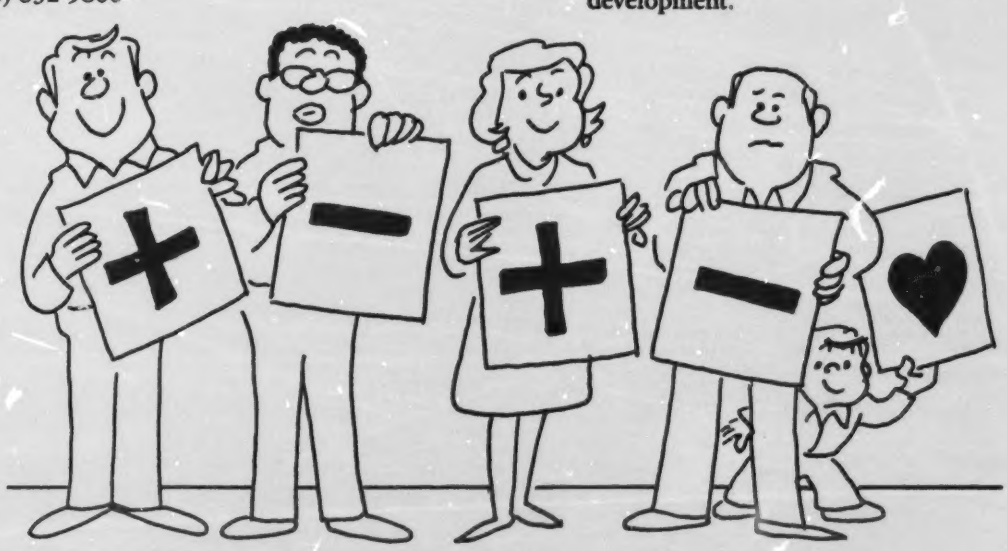
Does consulting on community involvement programs, provides funding referrals and reference information, and assists with workshops and seminars. Includes a resource library.

**American Association for Counseling and Development**
5999 Stevenson Avenue
Alexandria, Virginia 22304
(703) 832-9800
Dr. Frank Burtnett, Acting Assistant Executive Director

Provides professional assistance to school counselors upon request. Also offers library references, published materials, films, continuing education institutes, and an annual convention.

**Association for Children and Adults with Learning Disabilities**
4156 Library Road
Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania 15234
(412) 341-1515
Jean Petersen, Director

Assists organizations, institutions, agencies, and individuals desiring information on learning disabilities or assistance with program development.



**Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development**
225 North Washington Street
Alexandria, Virginia 22314
(703) 549-9110
Cerylle Friaz or Jean Hall
Offers assistance in classroom management, teacher effectiveness training, leadership styles, mastery learning, and other topics via its National Curriculum Study Institutes. Also provides services to schools through the Human Resource Development Program.

**Atlanta Board of Education**
School Security
159 Garnett Street, S.W.
Atlanta, Georgia 30335
(404) 659-3381
Lt. W.F. Collier
Involved in establishing school drug abuse prevention programs through joint efforts of parent-teacher associations and school boards. Provides consultations and materials to districts interested in developing such programs.

**The Atlanta Bureau of Police Services**
Crime Prevention Section
2001 Martin Luther King Drive, S.W.
Atlanta, Georgia 30318
(404) 658-6778
Capt. Edward Long
Presents lectures and seminars to local schools on crime prevention and seeks to familiarize young people with the positive aspects of law enforcement.

**Center for Action Research**
1125 Spruce Street
Boulder, Colorado 80302
(303) 443-7977
Tom Bird or Robert Hunter
Provides assistance and consultation to school leaders who are interested in promoting positive social behaviors among students, reducing or preventing deliquency, or developing school improvement activities.

**Center for Law and Justice**
University of Washington, JD-45
Seattle, Washington 98195
(206) 543-1485
Dr. Joseph G. Weis, Director
Through its National Center for the Assessment of Delinquent Behavior and Its Prevention, provides to parents, teachers, school administrators, and the community, information, expertise, consultation, and technical assistance on the planning, training, implementation, and evaluation of school and community-based delinquency prevention projects, particularly those that address the relationship between school effectiveness and delinquency prevention.

**Children's Defense Fund**
122 C Street, N.W.
Washington, D.C. 20001
(202) 628-8787
Mary Lee Allen
Seeks to change policies and practices leading to the mainstreaming of children. Offers a free publications list and a monthly newsletter concerning the health, welfare, abuse, and educational needs of children. Operates the Children's Public Policy Network, a national clearinghouse on child advocacy issues.

**The Children's Legal Rights Information and Training Program (CLR)**
2008 Hillyer Place, N.W.
Washington, D.C. 20009
(202) 332-6575
Roberta Gottesman, Director
Offers legal training for professionals working with children. Has conferences at the request of state or local governments. Publishes ***Children's Legal Rights Journal*** quarterly.

**Close-Up Foundation Partners Program**
1235 Jefferson Davis Highway
Arlington, Virginia 22202
(703) 892-5400
Sherry Schiller
Provides technical assistance for community action and encourages positive exposure to the

law and government. Offers training seminars for community network organizers and a videotape library on law-related issues.

**Colorado Department of Education**
School Improvement and Leadership Unit
First Western Plaza
303 West Colfax Avenue
Denver, Colorado 80202
(303) 534-8871 Ext. 347
Eugene Howard
Works with selected Colorado schools and others outside the state in developing programs of total school improvement. Offers conferences, individual school consultation on program development, data collection, and program analysis as well as a network for sharing information with other schools.

**Connecticut Department of Education**
Bureau of School and Program Development
P.O. Box 2219
Hartford, Connecticut 06145
(203) 566-2283
Dr. William J. Gauthier, Jr.
Designs school climate instruments for use by schools and offers staff development and training assistance.

**Council for Educational Development and Research**
(See end of section for complete listing of CEDAR organizations and services.)

**Delaware State Department of Instruction**
Townsend Building
P.O. Box 1402
Dover, Delaware 19903
(302) 736-4647
Sidney B. Collison, Director of Instruction
Conducts comprehensive school improvement visits for all schools at all levels as part of a monitoring program. Provides technical assistance to schools for climate workshops and staff development. Develops materials for staff education.

**The Discipline Consortium**
New York State Education Department
Albany, New York 12234
(518) 474-5807
James W. Moore
Offers regional workshops on school discipline in collaboration with representatives from state education organizations.

**Foundation for Children with Learning Disabilities**
99 Park Avenue
New York, New York 10016
(212) 687-7211
Sandra Kuntz, Executive Director
Offers a "Learning Disabilities Team Line" toll-free (800/522-3458) to parents, educators, and others who need assistance in addressing the problems of learning disabled children. This referral service is available Monday through Friday, 10 a.m. to 4 p.m. Also publishes *Their World* magazine once a year to highlight specific concerns, publications, and referral services.

**Midwest Race and Sex Desegregation Center**
Kansas State University
College of Education
Bluemont Hall
Manhattan, Kansas 66506
(913) 532-6408
Provides most types of technical assistance, except curricular development. *Horizons* and *Choices* are published twice each year.

**National Alliance for Safe Schools**
501 N. Interregional
Austin, Texas 78702
(512) 396-8686
Robert Rubel, Director
Provides a systematic approach to crime analysis targeting criminal incidence in the local school. Will analyze current prevention programs. Conducts seminars and workshops for administrators, teachers, and school teams on crime analysis and intervention programs. Publishes *Safe Schools Digest* periodically. Maintains a library of 1,700 volumes specifically relating to school crime.

## Technical Assistance Sources

**National Association of School Security Directors**
Presidential Building
415 12th St., N.W., Suite 1209
Washington, DC 20004
(202) 767-7514
Edgar Dews
Furnishes security assistance and conducts needs assessments for schools. Also offers staff development programs for administrators and teachers. Publishes a monthly newsletter for members.

**National Association of Secondary School Principals**
Task Force on Effective School Climate
1904 Association Drive
Reston, Virginia 22091
(703) 860-0200
Dr. Jim Keefe
Currently involved in the development of a school climate model and an assessment instrument. Offers assistance regarding school climate improvement and methods of promoting student achievement.

**National Center for State Courts**
300 Newport Avenue
Williamsburg, Virginia 23185
(804) 253-2000 Ext. 220
Dr. Ingo Keilitz
Supplies information and assistance relating to juvenile delinquency and the learning disabled child. Literature is available in the Publications Department (Ext. 349, Miss Robinson).

**National Center for the Study of Corporal Punishment and Alternatives in Schools**
253 Ritter Hall Annex
Temple University
Philadelphia, Pennsylvania 19122
(215) 787-6091
Dr. Irwin Hyman; Director
Offers workshops on discipline and a Discipline Help Line for parents, teachers, and administrators who have specific student discipline problems. Also maintains a library of news clips and articles on discipline in schools.

**National Committee for Citizens in Education**
Suite 410
Wilde Lake Village Green
Columbia, Maryland 20740
800-NETWORK
Mary Berla, Caseworker
Offers telephone counseling services to parents of problem children, a catalog of publications relating to law and education, and a newsletter eight times a year. Also provides specific information sheets on a periodic basis.

**National Diffusion Network Division**
U.S. Department of Education
Riviere Building, Room 802
1832 M Street, N.W.
Washington, DC 20036
(202) 653-7000
Kathy Michaelin
Makes exemplary education programs available to schools by providing training.

**National Education Association**
Instruction and Professional Development
1201-16th St. N.W.
Washington, D.C. 20036
(202) 822-7350
Resource publication available on national programs in discipline and violence in the schools. Cadre training program available for NEA members through their local or state NEA Association. Included in the workshop are: trainer, printed materials and some financial support to ensure member participation.

**National Federation of Parents for Drug Free Youth**
1820 Franwall Avenue, Room 16
Silver Spring, Maryland 20902
(301) 649-7011 or (800) 554-KIDS
Focuses on prevention of substance abuse through education of parents and formation of parent-community tasks forces. Has a network of 4,000 parent groups across the nation. Provides speakers and manuals on formation of parent groups and parent community task forces.

**National Institute for Citizen Education in the Law**
(formerly National Street Law Institute)
605 G Street, N.W.
Washington, D.C. 20001
(202) 624-8217
Lee Arbetman, Deputy Director of Schools and Juvenile Justice
Provides assistance in educational curriculum in street law (housing, family, consumer rights, criminal justice, and juvenile justice). Presents teacher training courses and workshops for teachers and administrators. Sets up a mentor program for students. Helps in establishing street law courses taught by local law students. Publishes *Street Law News* periodically.

**National Institute of Education**
1200-19th Street, N.W.
Washington, D.C. 20208
(202) 254-5407
Oliver Moles, Education Research Specialist
Makes available research studies on fear of crime in schools, suspension, alternatives to suspension, alternative schools, and classroom management. Also maintains an educational research library.

**National Institute on Drug Abuse**
Prevention Branch
5600 Fishers Lane
Rockville, Maryland 20857
(800) 638-2045 Outside Maryland
(800) 492-2948 In Maryland
Provides technical assistance to state and local governments, schools, parent groups, community organizations, and others interested in developing new or improving existing prevention programs. The Prevention Branch has a computerized prevention repository of more than 400 items to support technical assistance.

**National Parent-Teachers Association**
700 North Rush Street
Chicago, Illinois 60611
(312) 787-0977
Patricia Hoffman
Offers grants and training to local PTAs on drug and alcohol abuse awareness.

**Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention (OJJDP)**
U.S. Department of Justice
633 Indiana Avenue, N.W.
Washington, D.C. 20531
(202) 724-7655
Develops and distributes information on juvenile delinquency, supports research and evaluation of delinquency prevention efforts, and conducts training programs.

**Parent Resource Institute on Drug Education (PRIDE)**
Robert Woodruff Building
100 Edgewood Avenue, Suite 1216
Atlanta, Georgia 30303
(800) 241-9746
Furnishes resource information on current literature and films for parents and community groups. Provides speakers, consultants, and technical assistance for staff and youth development, curriculum programming, and community prevention activities.

**Research and Development Training Institute**
4215 North 34th Street
Phoenix, Arizona 85018
(602) 955-2920
Dorothy Crawford
Primarily concerned with the problems of the learning-disabled juvenile delinquents and how learning disabilities link with delinquency. Collects information on these subjects and offers workshops.

**Site Specific Technical Assistance Center (SSTA)**
Florida State University
403 Education Tallahassee, Florida 32306
(904) 644-2586
Dr. John H. Hanson
Provides organizational assessment, evaluation, and training for local schools and districts; publications; and as-needed professional assistance in implementing school improvement measures in grades K through 12. Offers training and evaluation of law-related education programs. Also has a library and publishes material concerning law-related education.

**Westinghouse National Issues Center**
American City Building
P.O. Box 866
Columbia, Maryland 21044
(301) 992-0066
Jean Wahl Halleck

Provides needs assessment, prevention, training, staff and material development, evaluation, planning assistance, and conference management. Also serves as a resource center.

**Council for Educational Development and Research (CEDAR)**
1518 K Street, N.W., Suite 206
Washington, D.C. 20005
(202) 638-3193
E. Joseph Schneider

**CEDAR** is a nonprofit education association representing regional education laboratories and university-based research centers.

**Cooperating** members are usually national, university-based centers with no state focus. Work is carried out through the laboratories rather than directly with schools.

**Participating** members work directly with schools. They may be contacted as follows:

**Appalachia Educational Laboratory**
P.O. BOX 1348
Charleston, West Virginia 25325
(304) 347-0400

States served: Alabama, Kentucky, Ohio, Tennessee, Virginia, and West Virginia

**Far West Laboratory**
1855 Folsom Street
San Francisco, California 94103
(415) 565-3000
C. Lynn Jeaks

States served: Northern California, Nevada (except Clark County), and Utah

**Mid-Continent Regional Educational Laboratory**
4709 Belleview Avenue
Kansas City, Missouri 64112
(816) 756-2401
Lochran C. Nixon, Jr.

States served: Colorado, Kansas, Missouri, Nebraska, North Dakota, South Dakota, and Wyoming

**The Network, Inc.**
290 South Main Street
Andover, Massachusetts 01810
(617) 470-1080
Susan Loucks

States served: Maine, New Hampshire, Rhode Island, Vermont, Connecticut, and Massachusetts

**Northwest Regional Educational Laboratory (NWREL)**
Education and Work Program
300 Southwest Sixth Avenue
Portland, Oregon 97204
(800) 547-6339 or (503) 248-6800
Andrea Hunter

States served: Alaska, Hawaii, Idaho, Montana, Oregon, and Washington

**Research for Better Schools**
444 North Third Street
Philadelphia, Pennsylvania 19123
(215) 574-9300
John E. Hopkins

States served: New Jersey, Maryland, Pennsylvania, and Delaware

**Southwest Educational Development Laboratory**
211 East Seventh Street
Austin, Texas 78701
(512) 476-6861
Preston C. Kronkosky

States served: Arkansas, Louisiana, Mississippi, New Mexico, Oklahoma, and Texas

**Southwest Regional Laboratory**
4665 Lampson Avenue
Los Alamitos, California 80720
(213) 598-7661
Richard E. Schutz

States served: Southern California, Nevada (Clark County), and Arizona

**Wisconsin Center for Education Research**
University of Wisconsin, Madison
1025 West Johnson
Madison, Wisconsin 53706
Marshall S. Smith, Director

SECTION SEVEN

# Databases and Clearinghouses

This listing is organized by state to allow for quick and easy reference. Each facility furnishes the most comprehensive and up-to-date information on available materials and services.

## Alabama

**Center for Corrective Psychology**
University of Alabama
P.O. Box 2968
University, Alabama 35486
(205) 348-5083
Dr. Raymond D. Fowler, Jr., Director

## Alaska

**University of Alaska**
Justice Center
3211 Providence Center
215 Library Building
Anchorage, Alaska 99508
(907) 263-1810
Dr. John E. Angell, Director

## Arizona

**Center for Study of Justice**
Arizona State University
Tempe, Arizona 86281
(602) 965-7682
Prof. Michael C. Misheno, Director

## California

**Center for Criminal Justice Research and Training**
California State University (Long Beach)
Department of Criminal Justice
1250 Bellflower Boulevard
Long Beach, California 90840
(213) 498-4940
William D. Fagan, Program Manager

**University of California (Davis)**
Center on Administration of Criminal Justice
Davis, California 96616
(916) 752-2893
Prof. Floyd Feeney, Executive Director

**University of California (Berkeley)**
Childhood & Government Project
College of Law
Berkeley, California 94720
(415) 642-0910
William G. Riggon, Coordinator-Administrator

**University of Southern California**
Criminal Justice Planning Institute
3601 South Flower Street
Los Angeles, California 90007
(213) 746-6762
Professor Rebecca Wurzburger, Director

**UCLA, School of Public Health**
DataBank of Program Evaluations
10833 Conte Avenue
Los Angeles, California 90024
(213) 825-1240
Dr. Daniel M. Wilner, Principal Investigator

**Delinquency Control Institute**
University of Southern California
Los Angeles, California 90007
(213) 741-2497
Steven Duncan, Director

**Earl Warren Legal Institute**
University of California (Berkeley)
Berkeley, California 94720
(415) 642-5880
Prof. Lawrence A. Sullivan, Director

**National Council on Crime and Delinquency Research Center**
760 Market Street
San Francisco, California 94102
(415) 956-5651
James Galvin, Vice President of Information and Publications

## Colorado

**Research Program on Problem Behavior**
University of Colorado (Boulder)
Institute of Behavioral Science
Boulder, Colorado 80309
(303) 492-6921
Dr. Richard Jessor, Director

## District Of Columbia

American Institute for Research in Behavioral Sciences
1055 Thomas Jefferson Street, N.W.
Washington, D.C. 20007
(202) 342-5000
Dr. Paul A. Schwarz, President

**Center for Study of Youth Development**
Catholic University of America
620 Michigan Avenue, N.E.
Washington, D.C. 20064
(202) 635-5999
Dr. James P. O'Connor, Director

**Educational Resources Information Center**
National Institute of Education
Information Resources Division
Washington, D.C. 20208
(202) 254-5500
Charles W. Hoover, Head

**Institute for Justice Research**
American University
School of Justice
Massachusetts and Nebraska Avenues, N.W.
Washington, D.C. 20016
(202) 686-2280
Prof. Richard A. Myren, Dean

**Institute for Urban Affairs and Research**
Howard University
2900 Van Ness Street, N.W.
Washington, D.C. 20008
(202) 686-6770
Dr. Lawrence E. Gary, Director

**National Institute for Citizen Education in the Law**
605 G Street, N.W.
Washington, D.C. 20001
(202) 624-8217
Nancy Switkes, Clearinghouse Coordinator

## Florida

**Center for Governmental Responsibility (CGR)**
University of Florida
Holland Law Center
Gainesville, Florida 32611
(904) 392-2237
Martin H. Belsky, Director

**Center for Policy and Law in Education**
University of Miami
P.O. Box 8065
Coral Gables, Florida 33124
(305) 284-3166
Dr. Robert J. Simpson, Director

**Multidisciplinary Center for Urban and Minority Problems**
Institute for Social Research
Florida State University
Tallahassee, Florida 32306
(904) 644-2834
Dr. Charles E. Billings, Director

## Georgia

**Institute of Government**
University of Georgia
Athens, Georgia 30602
(404) 542-2736
Dr. Delmer D. Dunn, Director

## Hawaii

**Youth Development and Research Center**
University of Hawaii
2500 Campus Road
Honolulu, Hawaii 96822
(808) 948-7517
Jack T. Nogoshi, Director

## Illinois

**Center for Research in Law and Justice**
University of Illinois
P.O. Box 4348
Chicago, Illinois 60680
(312) 996-4632
Joseph L. Peterson, Director

**Center for Studies in Criminal Justice**
University of Chicago Law School
1111 East 60th Street
Chicago, Illinois 60637
(312) 753-2438
Franklin Zimring, Director

**Center for the Study of Crime, Delinquency and Corrections**
Southern Illinois University
Carbondale, Illinois 62901
(618) 453-5701
Lawrence Bennett, Director

**Center for Urban Affairs**
Northwestern University
2040 Sheridan Road
Evanston, Illinois 60201
(312) 492-3395
Margaret T. Gordon, Director

**Community & Family Study Center**
University of Chicago
1126 East 59th Street
Chicago, Illinois 60637
(312) 643-0800
Dr. Donald J. Bogue, Director

**Community Research Center**
University of Illinois
Champaign, Illinois 61820
(217) 333-0443
James W. Brown, Director

**Institute of Government and Public Affairs**
University of Illinois
1201 West Nevada Street
Urbana, Illinois 61801
(217) 333-3340
Professor Samuel K. Gove, Director

## Iowa

**Iowa Urban Community Research Center**
University of Iowa
117 Macbride Hall
Iowa City, Iowa 62242
(319) 363-4119
Dr. Lyle W. Shannon, Director

## Kansas

**Institute for Research in Learning Disabilities**
University of Kansas
313 Carruth-O'Leary Hall
Lawrence, Kansas 66045
(913) 864-4780
Donald D. Deshler, Director

**National Organization on Legal Problems of Education**
Southwest Plaza Building
3601 W. 29th
Suite 223
Topeka, Kansas 66614
(913) 273-3550

## Maryland

**National Clearinghouse on Drug Abuse Information**
P.O. Box 416
Kensington, Maryland 20795
(301) 443-6500

**National Criminal Justice Reference Service (NCJRS)**
U.S. Department of Justice
Box 6000
Rockville, Maryland 20850
(800) 638-8736

## Massachusetts

**Institute for Responsive Education**
605 Commonwealth Avenue
Boston, Massachusetts 02215
(617) 353-3309
Ross Zerchykov, Vice President

## Michigan

**Criminal Justice Institute**
6001 Cass Avenue
Detroit, Michigan 48202
(313) 871-2550
James N. Garber, Executive Director

## New Jersey

**National Council on Crime and Delinquency**
Information Center
Continental Plaza
411 Hackensack Avenue
Hackensack, New Jersey 07601
(201) 642-3030
Eugene Doleschal, Director

## New Mexico

**Criminal Justice Program**
University of New Mexico
Bandelier West
Albuquerque, New Mexico 87131
(505) 277-3422
William Partridge, Director

## New York

**Criminal Justice Center**
444 West 66th Street
New York, New York 10019
Michael Farmer, Executive Director

**Horace Mann—Lincoln Institute**
Columbia University
303 Main Hall
Broadway and 120th Streets
New York, New York 10027
(212) 678-4076
Dr. Gary Bridger, Director

**Institute for Epidemiologic Studies in Violence**
47 Winston Woods
Brockfort, New York 14420
(716) 395-2642
David F. Duncan, Director

**School Practices Information File**
Education Service Group
BRS
1200 Route 7
Latham, New York 12110
(518) 763-4161
Deborah Pietro, Manager

**Urban Research Center**
Hunter College
790 Madison Avenue
New York, New York 10021
(212) 570-5594

## North Carolina

**Center for Early Adolescence**
Information Services Division
Carr Mill Mall, Suite 223
Carrboro, North Carolina 27510
David Sheaves, Information Services Coordinator

**Institute of Government**
University of North Carolina
P.O. Box 990
Chapel Hill, North Carolina 27514
(919) 966-5381
John L. Sanders, Director

## North Dakota

**Bureau of Governmental Affairs**
University of North Dakota
Box 7167 University Station
Grand Forks, North Dakota 68202
(701) 777-3041
Lloyd B. Omdahl, Director

## Ohio

**Program for Study of Crime and Delinquency**
Ohio State University
1775 College Road
Columbus, Ohio 43210
(614) 422-7468
Dr. C. Ronald Huff, Director

**Resource Organizations and Meetings for Educators**
Resource and Referral Service
The National Center for Research in Vocational Education
1960 Kenny Road
Columbus, Ohio 43210
(800) 848-4815
Jay Smink, Project Director

## Oregon

**Urban Studies Center**
Portland State University
P.O. Box 751
Portland, Oregon 97207
(503) 229-4042
Dr. Kenneth J. Dueker, Director

## Pennsylvania

**Administration of Justice, Research Office**
University of Pittsburgh
517 Law Building
Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania 15260
(412) 624-6104
Beaufort Longest, Director

**Center for Studies in Criminology and Criminal Law**
University of Pittsburgh
3718 Locust Street
Philadelphia, Pennsylvania 19104
(215) 243-7411
Dr. Marvin E. Wolfgang, Professor

**National Council of Juvenile & Family Court Judges**
National Center for Juvenile Justice Computerized Information Services
3900 Forbes Avenue
Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania 15260
(412) 227-6950
Hunter Hurst, Center Director

## South Carolina

**American Friends Service Committees**
Southeastern Public Education Program
Community Relations Division
401 Columbia Building
Columbia, South Carolina 29201
(803) 256-6711

## Texas

**National Alliance of Safe Schools**
501 N. Interregional
Austin, Texas 78702
(512) 396-8686
Dr. Robert J. Rubel, Director

**Southwest Center for Urban Research**
1200 Southmore
Houston, Texas 77004
(713) 526-8801
Dr. Ralph Conant, President

## Virginia

**American Association of School Administrators**
1801 North Moore Street
Arlington, Virginia 22209
(703) 528-0700

**Center for Study of Public Choice**
Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University
Blacksburg, Virginia 24601
(703) 961-5501
Dr. James M. Buchanan, General Director

**National Center for State Courts**
300 Newport Avenue
Williamsburg, Virginia 23185
(804) 253-2000

**Research in Progress**
National Technical Information Service
5285 Port Royal Road
Springfield, Virginia 22161
(703) 487-4808
David Grooms, Product Manager

## Washington

**National Center for the Assessment of Delinquent Behavior and Its Prevention**
Center for Law and Justice JD-45
University of Washington
Seattle, Washington 98195
(206) 543-1485
Dr. Joseph G. Weis, Director

## Wisconsin

**Center for Criminal Justice & Social Policy**
Marquette University
526 North 14th Street
Milwaukee, Wisconsin 53233
(414) 224-6770
Dr. Richard D. Knudten, Director

**Criminal Justice Reference and Information Center**
University of Wisconsin
L140 Law Library
Madison, Wisconsin 63706
(608) 262-1499
Sue Center, Librarian

**Department of Governmental Affairs**
University of Wisconsin
610 Langdon Street
Madison, Wisconsin 53706
(608) 262-3150
Richard L. Stauber, Chairman

SECTION EIGHT

# Development Resources

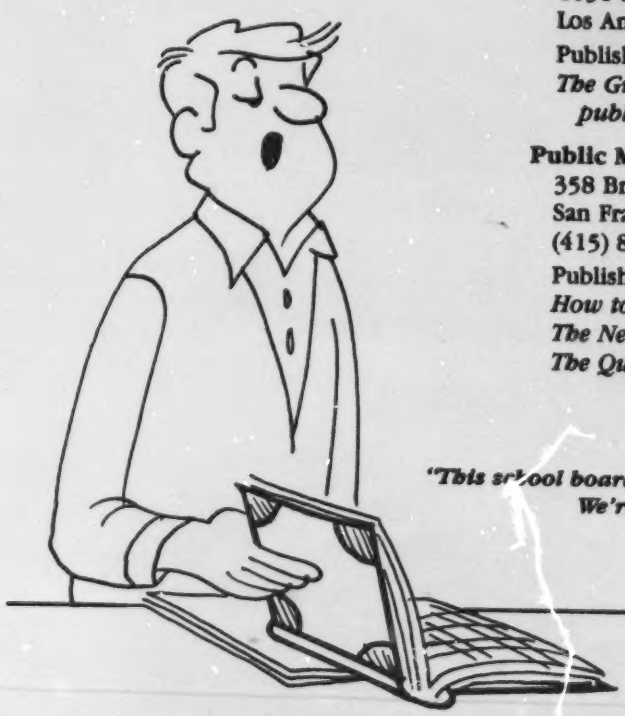
The publications listed in this section are published and available through the organization, unless otherwise noted.

**Council for Financial Aid to Education**
680 Fifth Avenue
New York, New York 10019
(212) 541-4050
Publishes:
*The CAFE Casebook: A Cross-Section of Corporate Aid-to-Education Programs*

**The Foundation Center**
888 Seventh Avenue
New York, New York 10106
(212) 975-1120
- or -
Suite 939
1001 Connecticut Avenue, N.W.
Washington, D.C. 20036
(202) 331-1400
Publishes:
*The Foundation Directory*

**The Grantsmanship Center**
1031 South Grand Avenue
Los Angeles, California 90015
Publishes:
*The Grantsmanship Center News, a magazine published six times a year*

**Public Management Institute**
358 Brannan Street
San Francisco, California 94107
(415) 896-1900
Publishes:
*How to Get Corporate Grants*
*The New Grants Planner*
*The Quick Proposal Workbook*



*"This school board's financial worries are over! We're out of money!"*

*Successful Fund Raising Techniques*
*Successful Seminars, Conferences, and Workshops*
*Evaluation Handbook*
*Needs Assessment Handbook*

**Public Service Materials Center**
111 North Central Avenue
Hartsdale, New York 10530
(941) 949-2242
Publishes:
*America's Most Successful Fund Raising Letters*
*The Complete Fund Raising Catalogue*
*How to Raise Funds from Foundations*
*How to Write Successful Foundation Presentations*

**The Taft Corporation**
5125 MacArthur Boulevard, N.W.
Washington, D.C. 20016
(800) 424-3761
Publishes:
*The Taft Corporate Directory*
*The Proposals Writer's Swipe File: 15 Winning Fund Raising Proposals*
*People in Philanthropy: A Guide to Philanthropic Leaders and Funding Connections*
*The Taft Foundation Reporter*

## Books

**Contact List for Education Funding Sources**
New York City Board of Education
Special State and Federal Programs Unit
347 Baltic Street
Brooklyn, New York 12201

**Developing Skills in Proposal Writing**
**By Mary Hall**
Continuing Education Publications
1633 Southwest Park
P.O. Box 1491
Portland, Oregon 97202

**The Local Education Foundation: A New Way to Raise Money for Schools**
National Association of Secondary School Principals
1904 Association Drive
Reston, Virginia 22091
(703) 860-0200

## Magazines

**Foundation News: A Magazine of Philanthropy (Bimonthly)**
Council on Foundations, Inc.
1828 L Street, N.W.
Washington, D.C. 20036
(202) 466-6512

**Fund Raising Management**
Hoke Communications, Inc.
224 Seventh Street
Garden City, Long Island
New York, New York 11530
(516) 746-6700

# APPENDIX

*"It's a behavioral contract I've designed. Why?"*

225

GEORGE WASHINGTON
PREPARATORY HIGH SCHOOL

LOS ANGELES UNIFIED SCHOOL DISTRICT

# Preparation for Excellence

**Grades 9-12**

## Standards for Students

### Foreword

George Washington Preparatory High School students uphold standards of behavior which recognize the rights and well-being of others, and which contribute to the good conduct and reputation of the school and its students. The following school standards represent the current official regulations for all Washington High students.

## Conduct

Student I.D. cards must be carried at all times and must be shown upon request by school personnel.

Smoking is not permitted at any time by students on school premises. This includes the sidewalk area surrounding the school as well as the front steps and auditorium steps.

Radios and tapedecks are not to be brought to school. Teachers are authorized to confiscate any radio carried by a student and turn it in to the appropriate Dean's Office.

Loitering on campus or in front of the school at any time is not permitted. This includes the halls, restrooms, front lawn and auditorium steps. Those students with Period 1 Home-study are not to arrive on campus until time to attend Period 2. Students who have no Period 6 class are to leave campus. Students may not be out of class without a pass.

Lunch permits and homestudy passes must be shown in order to leave campus. Only the front door is to be used to leave school during the day.

Gambling on school grounds is strictly prohibited.

Young children are not permitted on campus. Teachers are not to allow young children to enter a classroom. Students who bring young children to school will be sent home. There are no exceptions.

Use, sale or possession of illegal drugs or alcohol on school premises is strictly prohibited.

Fighting is not permitted at any time on or near school grounds. Assault or battery on students or teachers is strictly prohibited, and violators **will be prosecuted.**

Use of profanity, abusive language and racially derogatory remarks toward students, school personnel or other persons on campus is strictly prohibited.

Defiance of the authority of school personnel either by behavior, verbal abuse or gestures is not permitted.

Students are not to destroy, deface or in any way damage school property. This includes putting graffiti on school property.

No food is to be brought into buildings or classrooms at any time.

Student cars and motorcycles are not permitted on campus at any time.

Use, possession or sale of fireworks or other explosives on campus is strictly prohibited.

Throwing objects of **any kind** on campus is strictly prohibited.

## Dress

Hair nets, curlers and loose slippers are not to be worn to school.

Hats may be worn, but are to be removed at all times by men when entering classrooms, offices, cafeteria, auditorium and other public gatherings. Hats and visors **must** be removed upon request by classroom teachers in individual classrooms.

Young men are not allowed to wear earrings to school.

Wearing of any gang symbols, such as handkerchiefs, suspenders, earrings or other attire, is strictly prohibited.

Students are not to wear clothing designating membership in non-school organizations or private clubs. Official school sweaters and jackets are permitted.

## Attendance

Regular and punctual attendance is a requirement for successful school participation.

Excessive absence and/or tardiness to school is not acceptable and only "excused" absences due to pupil's own injury or illness, doctor's appointments or death in family will be eligible for make-up work upon return.

Excessive unexcused absences for truancy, oversleeping, missing the bus, suspension, family trips, shopping and other such reasons will not be tolerated and may be reason for academic failure and removal from the program.

Three unexcused absences within a marking period from any class will necessitate a mandatory parent conference **prior** to the student's return to class.

## Homework

Homework is given **every** day and students are **expected** and **required** to complete all assignments.

Grades are dependent upon successful completion of assigned work and failure to do homework may result in removal from the program due to poor grades.

Continued lack of cooperation or failure to meet the above mentioned standards may result in transfer of the student to another school.

## Parent Expectations

The role of the parent in the Washington Preparatory High School is very essential. The following guidelines are expected of all parents whose children are in attendance.

Parents are expected to participate in orientation prior to the enrollment of any student new to Washington Preparatory High School.

Parents are expected to partipate in workshops, conferences, meetings, and cooperate with the school in supporting specific activities.

Parents are expected to be responsible for the regular and punctual attendance of their children and to provide written excuses for all excused absence due to student's illness, death in family or doctor's appointment.

Parents are expected to come to school for parent conferences in the event of a student suspension. This will be **required prior** to the student being readmitted to classes.

Parents are expected to see that their children complete all homework assignments.

Parents are expected to be responsible for the behavior of their children and to assure that their children be responsive to school rules and basic human rights.

---

GEORGE WASHINGTON PREPARATORY HIGH SCHOOL

## Parent/Student Contract

I apply for admission as a student to George Washington Preparatory High School. I have read the rules, policies and regulations of the school or have had them explained to me. I agree to abide by them.

Signed _____ Date _____
(Student)

My child _____ and I have read and discussed the rules, regulations, educational policy, student conduct and dress codes, discipline policy, attendance policy and the homework policy of Washington Preparatory High School.

I agree to encourage my child to follow these rules and policies and undertake to become personally involved in my child's education.

Signed _____ Date _____
(Student)

Address _____ Zip Code _____ Phone Number _____

Los Angeles Unified School District
**GEORGE WASHINGTON PREPARATORY HIGH SCHOOL P.O. Box 3307 Los Angeles, California 90051**

# Pursuing School Safety in the 80's:

# An Opinion from the Attorney General's Office

By George Nicholson

"Crime and violence threaten the viability of our public schools," said United States Attorney General William French Smith, Speaking this June in Quantico,, Virginia, Smith called for a crackdown on crime in the schools, saying that more than 250,000 students and 5,000 teachers are physically assaulted in "a typical month." Recent California newspaper headlines confirming Smith's concern read like a casualty list from a war zone:

**First grade teacher was in shock after finding out this morning vandals broke into her classroom and destroyed papers, books, plans, and files gathered during her 14 years teaching.**
*(Antioch Daily Ledger,* March 5, 1981.)

**It's neighbors vs kids, as fearful family fights back against teens in Petaluma.**
*(Santa Rosa Press Democrat,* March 19, 1981.)

**Vandals give Livermore a community-wide crisis.**
*(Oakland Tribune,* January 20, 1980.)

**Fire destroys high school; arson blamed.**
*(San Francisco Chronicle,* June 8, 1980.)

**Student, 16, slain on school campus.**
*(Los Angeles Times,* February 11, 1981.)

And the list could go on and on. Acts of violence and vandalism are occurring with more frequency and greater intensity in schools almost everywhere—to such a degree that the effectiveness of some schools as places of learning has been largely destroyed.

School officials are voicing great concern about weapons, drugs, loiterers, and rampant absenteeism, all now found in the schools of any city, suburb, or town, regardless of geographic location or per capita income. The consequent fear, disgust, and frustration often cause teachers, parents, and students to feel like helpless victims of hopeless circumstances.

Yet, many factors influence the volume of crime in schools, and some of them can be controlled:

- Principals must control campuses and teachers must control classrooms—the more firmly and decisively a school is run, the lower the incidence of crime and violence.
- Faculty and administration must work together—good coordination helps reduce crime and violence.
- Nonstudents without proper reason to be present must be kept off campus—interlopers often cause problems and increase the risk of property damage, personal injury, and drug traffic.
- Class sizes and the range of different students taught by teachers must be limited—teachers have better control over smaller classes and more continuous contact with the same students helps reduce crime and violence.
- Schools must be designed with crime prevention in mind—correct landscaping, fencing, lighting, security systems, and limited access to key target areas of schools can significantly reduce crime and violence.

***Acts of violence and vandalism are destroying the effectiveness of some schools as places of learning. But many factors influence the volume of crime in schools—and some of them can be controlled.***

Reprinted from *Thrust*
October 1981

- Inservice training on security and safety procedures must be provided to all school personnel—victimization of both staff and students will then diminish.

Preventive rather than reactive approaches to school security, then, are imperative, Give the above innovations the highest priority. Also, school administrators must recognize and admit that they have problems, must stop being defensive, and must overcome the fear that such admissions will negatively affect their images as educators. It is *not* a sign of weakness to anticipate problems or to seek outside advice and assistance. Much strength and support is available. Not every school suffers from *serious* violence and vandalism, but *no* school can adopt the naive, it-can't-happen-here attitude.

Effective resistance to crime and violence cannot be achieved on a narrow, piecemeal basis, but instead involves a varied, comprehensive effort geared to a particular school's specific problems. The school community—students, teachers and school administrators, parents, neighbors, law enforcers, and civic groups—must make a lasting commitment if campus safety is to ever be restored.

***School administrators must admit that they have problems, must stop being defensive, and must overcome the fear that such admissions will negatively affect their images as educators.***

## California Department of Justice's role in battle for safe schools

In May 1980, Attorney General George Deukmejian threw the prestige and authority of the California Department of Justice into the battle by filing a precedent-setting lawsuit to restore safety in the schools. Government officials throughout Los Angeles were named as defendants in the lawsuit, which sought to promote a sustained and cooperative multi-agency effort to restore safety in public schools. By specifically dealing with the problems of school violence in the Los Angeles USD, Deukmejian intended the lawsuit to thereby establish general legal principles that would apply to all of California's public schools.

The lawsuit's primary thrust was to promote more vigorous cooperation among relevant government agencies, civic organizations, and citizens in identifying effective ways to reduce

***Effective resistance to crime and violence demands a varied, comprehensive effort geared to the individual school's specific problems. It will take a commitment from the entire community to restore safety on campus.***

crime and violence in public schools. There were some adverse trial court rulings, but Deukmejian is actively pursuing the lawsuit in the appellate courts.

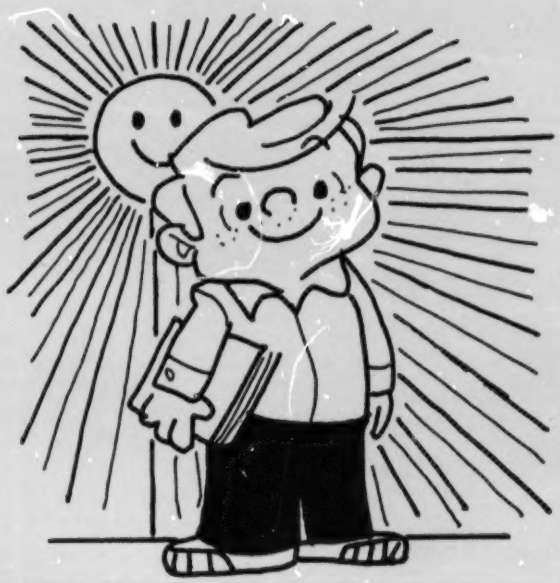
On a different front, in September 1980 the attorney general opened the School Safety Center (SSC) in Sacramento to provide technical assistance, support, and coordination in the fight to reduce school crime throughout California and to promote cooperation between the Department of Justice and state and local educational institutions.

One area of activity of SSC centers around a unique grant wedding county and state agencies to restoring campus security. This grant from the Law Enforcement Assistance Administration (LEAA), is title "Juveniles, Justice and Crime Prevention: A New Perspective"—and is now in its second quarter of operation. Under it, SSC is working with Ann Panizzon's Center for Law-Related Education (Santa Barbara) to develop a law-related/crime prevention curriculum for fourth to sixth grades. (See Panizzon's article later in this issue.) Materials developed so far include an anti-vandalism package, the School Security Handbook and School and Community Alternatives to Vandalism; Child Abuse: The Educator's Responsibilities; Truancy: Everyone's Problem; Violence Reduction Handbook; and The Law and You (a crime prevention curriculum with five accompanying booklets—You and Your School, You and Your Property, You and Yourself, You and Your Family, and You and Others). This project is funded through California's Office of Criminal Justice Planning (OCJP). When OCJP approves these materials, they will be printed and distributed immediately, This curriculum package is being tested in two schools this fall.

On its own, the SSC staff is producing Campus Strife. The Educator's Crime Prevention Quarterly to promote program and idea exchange in reducing school crime; Law in the School, a guide for California teachers, parents, and students (third edition; plans are underway for a fourth edition in 1982, with accompanying video and audio tapes); The Crime Prevention Coloring Book; and the fourth edition of Schools, Violence & Youth (which will be available during California's "School Safety Week" in September).

***Basically, the School Safety Center (SSC) is developing legislation, information, and programs to combat crime in the schools. SSC director Nicholson thinks that school safety can be restored because the emphasis is on action—not rhetoric.***

The staff is also creating a central clearinghouse for information on exemplary programs that school administrators throughout the state can use. SSC is working with other government agencies and many statewide and national groups—including ACSA—to develop programs and legislation to reduce crime. Among the many programs SSC has prepared are an audio-visual School Safety Education Program for law enforcement and school personnel, and an inservice training program for public school staffs to promote crime reduction. SSC has also made numerous presentations to school, law enforcement, and community groups to explain the extent of school safety problems and identify possible solutions, and cosponsored workshops on school crime and delinquency prevention.



## No simple solutions—but some good first steps

There are no simple solutions to crime and violence in our schools, but the National School Boards Association's Ad Hoc Committee on Discipline has developed a few sound, basic recommendations:

- Establish a task force composed of parents, teachers, students, administrators, and school board members to survey school safety problems and initiate a specific action plan to be implemented within a specific time.
- Involve students, teachers, parents, and administrators in developing and enforcing written disciplinary policies and procedures.
- Formally and visibly distribute those written disciplinary policies and procedures.
- Provide inservice training on discipline.
- Actively enforce the rules, and vigorously and consistently prosecute *all* illegal acts.
- Establish alternative educational programs in schools.

In addition, SSC recommends creating a comprehensive incident-reporting system and an attendance-taking procedure that accurately deals with truancy and provides for immediate contact and follow-up with parents.

Every successful step forward in school crime prevention permits allocating more of our limited state and federal tax dollars to truly academic pursuits, rather than allocating precious funds to treating wounded children, teachers, and support personnel, or restoring damaged or destroyed school property or buildings. And, apart from tangible costs, who can put a price on the fear that our children, teachers, and support personnel face almost daily in many of our schools?

This author is optimistic and believes that school safety can be restored eventually—largely because meetings, reports, and studies now seem to stress action rather than rhetoric! The public is demanding, correctly, accountability and results now. We must make the '80s remembered as the decade in which tranquility was restored to public school campuses, the era when rampant flames of crime and violence were replaced by the soothing flickers of rekindled lamps of learning.

For more information on school crime prevention, write the School Safety Center, Office of the Attorney General, 555 Capitol Mall, Suite 655, Sacramento, CA 95814.

# Community Safe Schools Resolution

WHEREAS, it is the duty of all citizens and institutions to help improve the safety and discipline of our schools;

WHEREAS, crime and poor discipline disrupt the learning environment and retard the achievement of our students;

NOW THEREFORE BE IT RESOLVED by the undersigned community leaders and institutions, that each school operated by this community establish a Code of Conduct which contains rules sufficient for the maintenance of safety and a learning environment;

BE IT FURTHER RESOLVED, that it is mandatory that all faculty and staff enforce the Codes of Conduct so established, without regard for personal preference. The Codes of Conduct reflect the policy of the School Board in discharging its responsibility to assure quality education. Therefore, the uniform and strict application of these codes is considered to be a minimum and absolute standard of performance for all employees of the school system, which other institutions and members of the community will support and respect, and

BE IT FURTHER RESOLVED, that parents and students shall receive a copy of the Code of Conduct and shall acknowledge and agree to abide by the Code at the beginning of each school year.

Mayor

Chairman, County or City Commission

Superintendent of Schools

Chairman, School Board

Chief of Police

Chief Judge

Parent Teacher Association

Principals and Teachers Organization(s)

# A Contract for Life

Each year, drunk driving accidents claim thousands of lives. Many of the guilty, as well as innocent victims, are teenagers. In fact, highway accidents are the leading cause of death among teenagers. Safer cars, better roads, new laws can help, but people are our best weapon in the fight to reduce highway deaths. People cause accidents; people who care can prevent accidents. Remembering our responsibilities to each other when we get behind the wheel can help save many lives. The American family is a powerful social force. This "Contract for Life" offers families a way to make their own personal commitment to help reduce highway accidents.

## History

The Contract for Life was developed by Mr. Robert Anastas, Founder and Executive Director of SADD, Students Against Driving Drunk. Since 1981, tens of thousands of families have signed a contract similar to this model, making their own personal commitment to be responsible drivers and to help family members avoid potentially dangerous situations. In communities where the Contract has been widely used there has been a noticeable reduction in highway accidents and an important number of lives saved.

## SADD: "If We Can Dream, It Can Be Done"

SADD was organized by Mr. Robert Anastas, an alcohol counselor and educator for over 22 years in Massachusetts, together with a number of interested high school students. The students and Mr. Anastas quickly began appearing on local and national news programs to discuss the drunk driving problem and they developed public service messages and other educational efforts to alert their fellow teenagers and others. The response from all sectors of society was enthusiastic and SADD chapters began appearing everywhere. Beginning in September of 1982, Mr. Anastas devoted full time to the SADD program and has traveled around the country speaking to over 250,000 students from approximately 6,000 different schools in over 22 states and Canada. Many schools in other states have started their own SADD chapters as a result.

**The goals of each SADD chapter are to:**

- Help eliminate drunk driving and save lives;
- Alert high school students to the dangers of drinking and driving;
- Conduct community alcohol awareness programs;
- Organize peer counseling programs to help students who may have concerns about alcohol.

If you's like to start a SADD chapter or get more information on the program, a curriculum guide is available for $2 postage and handling from: SADD, 110 Pleasant Street, Corbin Plaza, Marlboro, Massachusetts 01752.

## How to Make This a Living Contract

To make the Contract for Life work in your family, parents and teenagers should sit down together, perhaps after dinner, and talk openly about drinking and driving. Family members should feel free to express their feelings, concerns and beliefs. No promises should be made or asked for that cannot be kept. Everyone should read the entire contract and make sure they each understand what it says and means.

After parents and teenagers have signed, this Contract becomes an important family document—a pledge of mutual support and understanding. The

top copy can be framed and hung where it will serve as a constant reminder to all of you. The second copy should be kept with other important papers. The third copy is also very important. We'd like you to send it to us so that we'll know how many families this program has helped. No postage is required and we'll send you a free pamphlet with more information about drinking and driving to say "thank you." Your name will be kept confidential and we won't contact you further. There is a box you can check to get extra contracts. Don't forget to fill in your return address. Good luck!

The Contract for Life is a cooperative public service program of SADD, the National Football League and the Distilled Spirits Council of the United States. If you'd like more information on liquor industry programs to help reduce alcohol abuse, please write to:

**DISCUS**
**425 13th St., N.W., #1300**
**Washington, D.C. 20004.**

# CONTRACT FOR LIFE

## A Contract for Life Between Parent and Teenager

**The SADD Drinking-Driver Contract**

**Teenager** I agree to call you for advice and/or transportation at any hour, from any place, if I am ever in a situation where I have had too much to drink or a friend or date who is driving me has had too much to drink.

_____
Signature

**Parent** I agree to come and get you at any hour, any place, no questions asked and no argument at that time, or I will pay for a taxi to bring you home safely. I expect we would discuss this issue at a later time.

I agree to seek safe, sober transportation home if I am ever in a situation where I have had too much to drink or a friend who is driving me has had too much to drink.

Distributed by SADD Students Against Driving Drunk

_____
Signature

_____
Date